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## LITERATURE PRIMERS,

 Edited by J. R. Green, M.A. ENGLISH GRAMMAR.
## ENGLISH GRAMMAR

WITH

## EXERCISES

by thr
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## PRIMER

or

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

## CHAPTER I.

## INTRODUCTION.

## Relation of English to other Languages.

§ I Every language has a history of its own, and it may be made to tell us its own life, so to speak, if we set the right way to work about it.

There are two ways of getting at this history. The first mode is by comparing one language with others that are well known to us. The second is by studying the literature of a language in order of time, or chronologically, beginning with the very oldest written books, and coming down to the latest and newest.
The first or comparative method is one that you have no doubt tried yourselves upon a small scale, when you have noticed how closely our word house resembles the German haus, or English thou hast the German du hast. You may have asked yourselves, too, whether this likeness in words and in grammar proves that one of the languages is borrowed from the
other, as some have innocently supposed, or whether both have come from one parent, and are, so to speak, brothers or sisters.

But the English are quite as ancient a people as the Germans, and their language is as old as German, if not older, so that it would be decidedly wrong to infer that the one language came from or was borrowed from the other. So we are obliged to admit that English and German are akin, or related to each other, by having descended from a common parent.
82. Scholars have carried out this comparison with a large number of languages, and have shown us that English is related, not only to German, but more closely to Dutch, Danish, \&c., and more remotely to Welsh, Latin, Greek, Russian, Persian, Hindî, soc.

They have called these kindred tongues the IndoEuropean family of languages.

They have grouped together, too, those languages that most resemble one another.

The chief groups in Europe are-
(I) Keltic, centaining the Welsh, Irish, Gaelic, Manx, and Armorican languages.
(2) Romanic or Italic, containing Latin and the dialects sprung from Latin, called the Romance languages (Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, \&c.).
(3) Hellenic or Grecian, containing Ancient and Modern
(4) Siavonic, containing the Russian, Pulish, and Bohemian languages.

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he dialects languages \&c.). d Modern
1.] FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES. 3
(5) Teutonic, containing (a) English, Dutch, Flemish.
(b) Icelandic, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian.
(c) Modern German.
§ 3. They have proved-
(I) That our language belongs to a group called Teutonic.
(2) That English is most like Dutch, Frisian, and Flemish. These, including English, are called Low-German languages, because they were spoken originally along the lowlying shores of the German Ocean and Baltic Sea.
(3) That our language closely resembles Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish, called Scandinavian languages.
(4) That it is also, as we have seen, much like the modern German language which was at first spoken only in the Highlands of Central and Southern Germany, and hence called High-German.
§ 4. History confirms the story told us by those who have studied languages in the way we have spoken of, for we know that the first Englishmen, the Angles, came from the land of the Low Germans on the continent, and settled in Britain during the fifth century. England means "the land of the Angles." We know, too, that there were other LgueGerman tribes that came along with them, and spoke
the same language. The Saxons were the most important of these, and have left their names in their old settlements of Sussex, Wessex, Essex, and Middlesex.
§ 5. The second mode of arriving at the history of a language by means of its literature is called the historical method. We have a very long and complete series of English works, written at different periods, and going as far back as the ninth century (to the time of Alfred). From these written documents of the language we learn-
(1) ) How English has changed from time to time, and how many important events in the history of the English people are bound up with the changes that have taken place in the English language.
(2) That we have gradually lost a large number of grammatical endings or inflexions, which we have replaced by using distinct words for them, instead of adopting new endings.
At one time we could translate Lat. "bib-ere" by "drinc-an," but now by to drink.
(3) That though we have lost very many of our old English words, and have replaced them by others of foreign origin, yet all the most common and useful words, as well as all our grammar, is thoronghly English, and is not borrowed.

AR. [CHAP.
e most imes in their , and Mid-
the history called the d complete nt periods, ury (to the cuments of
ne to time, ts in the bound up place in
re number ons, which ct words endings. "drinc-an," ny of our ced them the most as all our nd is not
1.] FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES.
(4) That we have greatly added to our stock of words from various sources, of which the following are the most important :-
I. Keltic words. We have a few words (crag, glen, pool, mattock, Evc.) which the old English settlers took from the Keltic inhabitants of Britain, just as our countrymen in America still retain a few words borrowed from the native Indian tribes that once peopled that continent.
2. Scandinavian words. The Danish Invasion introduced some few Scandinavian words, as busk, dairy, fellow, fro, gait, ill, same, till, are, \&c.
3. Latin words. The bulk of our borrowed words are, however, of Latin origin, and came into the language at different times:-
i. The old English invaders adopted the names which the Romans had left behind in Britain for a fortified station (castra), a paved road (strata), and a rampart (vallum), which we still retain in Man-chester, Don-caster, \&c.; street and wall.
ii. The Roman priests and monks, who brought Christianity to our fors? ${ }^{\text {fathers }}$ in the sixth century, introduced some Latin words belonging to religion, worship, \&c., as bishop, priest, monk, mass, minister, \&c., as well as the names of a few things they brought with them :-butter, cheese, pcaise, pepper, \&c.
iii The Norman Conquest in 1066 was the means, through French, of introducing fresh Latin words much altered from their original form, as caitiff, frail, feat (cp. captive, fragile, fact).
iv. Through the Revival of Learning,* the Latin language became familiar to educated men, and English writers introduced into the language very many Latin words with very little change of form. Hence we are able to distinguish between the French Latin and the later Latin words: thus poor, ${ }^{1}$ poison, come through Norman-French, while pauper, potion, come straight from the Latin, and are due to English writers:
4. Greek words. We have also borrowed many scientific and philosophical words from the Greek language, as archeology, botany, physics, ethics, music, \&c.
5. Miscellaneous words. There are miscellaneous words in our vocabulary from numercus other languages. Our word tea is Chinese; canoe is American-Indian; yacht is Dutch; and cypher is Arabic, \&c.

[^0]R. โСнАР.
ae means, esh Latin inal form, ile, $f a c t)$. he Latin educated ced into rds with e we are
French hus poor, ch, while te Latin,
orrowed rom the cs, ethics,
1.] GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS. 7

## GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS.

§ 6. Language is made up of words.
Grammar tells us about the words that make up a language :-
i. If we examine a word as we hear it, we find that it consists of one or more sounds. These sounds are represented to the eye by written signs called letters.
ii. Words may be put into classes, or classified according to their distinctive uses. Words sometimes undergo change when combined with other words, or when they have something added to them to form new words.
iii. Words are combined according to certain laws.

Hence Grammar deals with the following subjects :
(I) Sounds and Letters: (Orthography.)
(2) Classification, inflexion and derivation: (Etymology.)
(3) The relation of words in a sentence, and the relation of sentences to each other: (Syntax.)

## 8 PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [CHAP.

## ORTHOGRAPHY.

## I. Sounds and Letters.

8. All sounds are not produced exactly in the same way. Some sounds are produced by means of the tongue and cavity of the mouth, which modify the breath before it passes into the air, as $a$ in father, $i$ in machine, oo in fool, \&c. These simple sounds are called vowels.

Vowels were so called because they made distinct voices or utterances and formed syllabies by themselves. ( Fr , voyelle, Lat. vocalis.) Two vowels sometimes unite to form a Diphthong, as $o i$ in boil, ai in aisle, \&c.
§ 8. Other sounds are produced by the direct means of the lips, teeth, \&c., which are called the organs of speech. These sounds are called consonants, as $\cdot b, d, \& c$.

Lip-sounds are called Labials; teeth-sounds Dentals; throatsounds Gutturals; hissing-sounds Sibilants.

Consonants (Lat. consonare, to sound along with) were so called because they could not make a distinct syllable without being sounded along with a vowel.

Some consonant sounds seem to have a little breath attached to them and may be prolonged. Such sounds are called spirants (Lat. spirare, to breathe), as $f, t h, \& c$.
The other consonants, in sounding which the breath seems .stopped, are called mutes or dumb sounds.

Of the mutes and spirants some seem to have a fiat sound, and others a sharp sound, as:-
$b$ (flat) $\quad p$ (sharp): $z$ (flat) $\quad s$ (sharp)
vich the or dumb
to have a
ctly in the $y$ means of ich modify a in father, ple sounds inct voices or ( Fr , voyelle, orm a Diph-
the direct called the ed conso-
tals; throat-
ith) were so
able without
ttle breath ed. Such breathe), - $\operatorname{arp}$ )

## I.-Consonant Sounds.

| MUTES. |  |  |  | SPIRANTS. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Flat | Sharp. | Nasal. | Flat. | Sharp. | Trilled |
| Gutturals | $\underset{\text { hard }}{\text { G }}$ | K | NG | $\cdots$ | H | $\ldots$ |
| Palatals. | J | $\underset{\text { (soft) }}{\mathrm{Ch}}$ | ... | Y | ... | $\ldots$ |
| Palatal Sibilants | \} | ... | ... | $\underset{\text { (azure) }}{\mathbf{Z h}}$ | $\underset{\text { (sure) }}{\mathbf{S h}}$ | R |
| Dental Sibilants | \} | $\ldots$ | ... | $\underset{\text { (prize) }}{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ | $\underset{\text { (mouse) }}{\mathbf{S}}$ | L |
| Dentals. | D | T | N | $\underset{\text { (bathe) }}{\mathrm{Dh}}$ | $\underset{\text { (bath) }}{\mathbf{T h}}$ | $\ldots$ |
| Labials. | B | P | $\mathbf{M}$ | $\underset{W}{\text { ( witch }}$ ( | $\underset{\text { Wh (which) }}{\text { F }}$ | $\ldots$ |

## II.-Vowel Sounds.

$a$ in gnat.
$a$ in pair.
$a$ in fame.
$a$ in all.
$a$ in want.

- in met.
c in meet.
$i$ in knit.
0 in not.
0 in note.
00 in fool, rude.
oo in wood, put.
$u$ in nut.


## III.-Diphthongs.

$i$ in high.
$a i$ in aisle.
$o i$ in boil.
ou in how, bound. ezvin mew.

The pupil must not confound the sound with the name of the letter; "be" is only the n:me of the sign b, not the sound it represents.

## The Alphabet.

§ 9. An Alphabet is a collection of written signs called letters.

The wodrd Alphabet is derived from Alpha, Beta, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet. An old name for our collection of letters was ABC.

There ought to be as many letters in a perfect alphabet as there are sounds in the language. We have forty-three sounds, which ought to be represented by forty-three letters. Our alphabet is very imperfect, for it consists of only twenty-six letters. Three of these $(c, q, x)$ are not wanted, so that we have really only twenty-three useful letters.
(r) One letter has to stand for more than one sound, as $s$ in seas; ch in church, rachine, chemistry; $\mathbf{g}$ in girl and gin. (See a, p. 9.)
(2) The same sound is represented by different signs; as 0 in note, boat, toe, crow, \&c.
(3) There are many silent letters, as in psalm, gnat, know, calf.
(4) $c, f, x$, are called redundant letters: c may ide represented by $s$ or $k, q$ by $k w$, and $x$ by $k s$.

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tten signs
the names a old name
a perfect age. We be repret is very x letters. that we
ind, as $s$ in $l$ and $g i n$.
ns; as 0 in
nat, $\mathbf{k n o w}$,
§ io. Occasional Change of Sound in English.
Consonants are sometimes combined. If they are unlike, one of them assimilates, or becomes like the other. Thus, if the first is a sliarp sound, the second, if flat, will become sharp; as weeped, wept.

A flat consonant must be followed by a flat consonant, and a sharp consonant by a sharp one; as,
I.-(I) slabs, pronounced slabz.
(2) bathes
bathz.
(3).hugged " hugd.
lagged " lagd.
II.-(1) slap-s.
(2) bath-s (gives a bath).
(3) sieeped pronounced siept.
lacked
" lackt.
The original sound of $s$ was sharp, as in mouse (See Plurals of Nouns, § 22, p. 21.)

# 12 PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [CHAP. 

## CHAPTER II.

## ETYMOLOGY.

## PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ II. Words are arranged in different the

Classes, according; to their use in a Sentence.

1. Words used as names are called Nouns; as, John saw a snake in the garden.
2. Words used for Nowns are called Pronouns; as, $I$ told John the snake would not hurt him or me, if he left it alone, to go its own way.
3. Words used with Nouns to distinguish or describe the thing named are called Adjectives; as, The humble-bees are known by their large size and hairy budies, often of a black colour with orange bands.

Adjectives serve to modify the meaning of the noun to which they relate. They may easily be found out by asking, "Of what sort?" "How many?" "Which?"
4. Words used for stating what anything does or is done to, are called Verbs; as, One day John saw a rat come out of a hole; he found it reas hurt and could not run fast.
wor
wis
5. Words used with Verbs to mark the when, where, and how of what is done, are called Adverbs; as, The lark soars aloft, and always sings sweetly.
Adverbs may be used with Adjectives and other Adverbs to mark how, how much, how often, \&c.; as, My father is quite well; he is very seldont ill; he does not like to take too much medicine.
6. Words used with Nouns (or Pronouns) to join them to verbs, adjectives, and other nouns, are called Prepositions; as, On Monday last, early in the morning, as John was walking along the siḍe of the river, he saw a snake of a large size, which he killed by striking it with his whip.
Prepositions join words together to show their bearing to one another ; as, side-river ; side of the river.
The noun or pronoun with the preposition depends upon the word to which it is joined; as, in "a man of wisdom," "of zuisdom" depends on "man."
The preposition with its noun is mostly of the same value as an adjective or an adverb. Thus: "a manu of wisdom," $=$ " $a$ wise man" (adj.); "he came on shore" = "he came ashore" (adv.).
Some prepositions cannot well be separated from the words which they come before; as, a-loft, in vain, at iast, in deed. We must parse these compounds as civerbs. (See $t$ above.)
7. Words used to join sentences together are called Conjunctions; as, Birds fly and fish swim, but worms creep along the ground, for they have no power to do otherwise or else they would.
8. Words used to express a sudden feeling are called interjections. They might be called Exclamations; as, Oh! Alas!

There are, as we have seen, eight Parts of Speech:-

1. Noun.
2. Pronoun.
3. Adjective.
4. Verb.
5. Adverb.
6. Preposition.
7. Conjunction.
8. Interjection.

## On Parsing.

§ 12. When we say to what class or part of speech a word belongs, we are said to parse it.

We must bear in mind that we cannot do this offhand, by merely looking at a word. We must ask ourselves what duty it is doing in the sentence to which it belongs, before we can parse it accurately.

The same word may be a roun in one part of a sentence,-an adjective in another, a verb in a third, and so on; as, John exchanged his silver watch for a lump of silver, with which he meant to silver some metal coins. The first "silver" is an adjective, the second a noun, and the third a verb.

Cp. "I cannot second you in trying to get the second place on the list without thinking a second or two about it."
"I learnt all my lessons but one, but thet was very hard; had I had but more time I could have learit it very well."

The first but = except, is a preposition; the second joins two sentences, and is therefore a conjunction; the third $=o n l y$, is an adverb.

The word that may be an adjective, a pronoun, or a conjunc"ior. "John said that that word that he had just prised was a pronoun."
c
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sl
$a$
in
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ti
$a b$
to
sp
oft
(I)
soo.

MMAR. [CMAP ht Parts of
erb.
osition. unction. jection.
art of speech
t do this offVe must ask ence to which atcly.
ne part of a 3 in a third, er watch for silver some adjective, the
e second place tt it."
ery har ${ }^{\text {; }}$; had vell."
cond joins two ird =only, is
or a conjunct prised $=$ wias

As may be an adverb, a conjunction, or a pronoun. "I am as wise as my elder brother, who has had the same teaching as I have had."

It must be recoilected that some pronowns can be used as adjectives; as, "That's the boy that took that splendid book of yours off your table."
Many words that are often used as adverbs may be used as conjunctions. "Now all is ready, come now, and den't delay a moment." "John was so naughty yesterday, he would climb about, so he fell down."

## On Changes that Words undergo.

§ 13. Some words alter their form to express a change of meaning; thus, child becomes ( I ) children, to show that more than one is meant; (2) child's, to show that something is possessed by a child.
"We sleep," becomes "we slept," to show that the action of sleeping is not now going on, but took place in some time gone by or past.

All the Parts of Speech do not undergo a change of form, only the Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, and some few Adverbs.

These changes, called inflexions, are mostly brought about by putting some additional letter or syllable to the end of a word. These additions are often spoke of as endings or suffixes.

1. The addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word often causes a change in the word itself; 3s, sleep-ed becomes (1) sleçp-d, (z) sï̆p$-l$; cp. gold and gild-en, nātion and nătional, goose and groling.

16 PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [CHAP.
2. The ending has sometimes disappeared altogether, and the internal change does duty for an inflexion. Thus, the word men (for mannis) has really lost the ending that brought about the change: cp. lead, led (once ledde); feed, fed (once fedde).
3. The loss of a letter in the middle of a word causes change; cp. $e^{\prime \prime}$ er for ěver. It is this change that explains made from maked; stile from stigel, \&c.
§ 14. English has lost very many endings, but it is not any the worse off on that account. It supplies their place by what we may call relational words (or words that carry us to some other word in the same sentence). Thus: instead of saying "a bat's wing," we can say "a wing of a bat." Here of does di'ty for the ending 's.

We say "a lion-ess" to show that we are naming the female. We might say "a she-lion, just as we do always speak of "a she-bear." The word she does exactly the same duty, and marks the same notion, as the ending -ess.

In fact, these endings, which now mean little by themselves, but modify greatly the words to which they are added, were once independent words; as, ly in god-ly is only a corruption of the word like in god-like.

MAR. [chap.
in.] NOUNS: CLA SSIFICA TION.

## CHAPTER III.

## NOUNS.

## I.-DEFINITION.

§ 15. A Noun is a word used as a name.
The word Noun comes from Fr. nom, Lat. nomen, a name that by which anything is known.

## II.-CLASSIFICATION.

§ 16. There are two kinds of nouns:-

## I. Proper. <br> 2. Common.

A Proper Noun is the name of only one person or thing in the same sense; as, Henry, London, Jupiter.

Proper means "belonging to oneself," not possessed by another, peculiar to one thing.

A Common Noun is the name of each individual in the same class or sort of things; as, ${ }^{\text {'man, }}$ girl, city, tree.

Common Nouns include what are called Collective Nouns and Abstract Nouns
(1) When a noun stands for a number (or collection) of persons or things considered as one it is called a Collective Noun; as, "a jury."
(2) When a noun is the name of a quality, property, or action, it is called an Abstract Naun; as zuhiteness, honesty, love, reading. The word abstract means drawn off. Abstract nouns are so called because they are the names of qualities or states considered apart from the objects to which they belong. We see and speak of a zuhite fower, but we may think and speak of the wohite ness alove.
The form of the verb with to before it is used as an abstract noun; as "to play cricket is pleasanter than to learn grammar."

## III.-INFLEXIONS.

§r7. Nouns and Pronouns have inflexions to mark Gender, Number, and Case.

## i. Gender of Nouns.

§ r8. Gender is that form of the noun which shows whether we are speaking of living beings (males or females), or lifeless things. The names of males are called Masculine nouns. The names of females are called Feminine nouns.

The word gender (Fr. genre. Lat. genus) means kind or class. It belongs only to words: thus the person man is of the male sex, but the word man is masculine or of the masculine gender.

The names of things without life are called Neuter nouns, because they are of neither gender.

A noun that is either masculine or feminine is said to be of the Common gender; as parent (father or mother), chilid (boy or ginl).

When the masculine and feminine have each a

TMAR. [CHAP.
lity, property, or n; as whiteness, act means drawn ause they are the apart from the and speak of a $a k$ of the ruhite
ed as an abstract er than to learn
inflexions to
noun which living beings The names of The names of
ns kind or class. is of the male asculine gender. e are called ither gender. feminine is as parent have each a
distinct ending, then we have what is strictly termed grammatical gender, as-

| Masc. |  | Fem. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| murder-er | and | murder-ess. |
| sorcer-er | $"$ | sorcer-ess. |

But such words are now very few, and the masculine noun occurs most often without any ending to mark gender, as-

| Masc. |  | Fem. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| giant | and | giant-ess. |
| peer | $"$ | peer-ess. |

We have chiefly to consider then the endings of feminine nouns.

The feminine is formed from the masculine by the suffix -ess.

Masc.
heir
founder
actor cater-er

Fem.
heir-ess. foundr-ess. actr-ess. cater-ess.

This suffix comes to us from the Norman-French -esse (Lat. -issa). It is not found in the language before the twelfth century. It is now the only common mode of forming the feminine. Its present use is restricted; it cannot be put to every masculine noun.

In some few borrowed words we have feminine endings of foreign origin, as-

| Masc. |  | Fem. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| executor | $a \cdot!$ | execu-trix. |
| hero | $"$, | hero-ine. <br> sultan |
| sultan |  |  |

§ 19. Remains of Older Modes of Marking the Feminine.
I. By the suffix -ster. Spin-ster, the name of an unmarried woman, once signified a female spinner.
In O. E. many masculines in eer had a corresponding feminine in-ster; as,

Masc.
O. E. bac-ere=baker, saing-ere $=$ sing-er,

Fem. bac-estre $=$ baxter. sang-estre=song-stress.

In the 14th century the N.-Fr. -ess took the place of the older -sier as a feminine ending. After a time, -ster merely marked the agent, as in songster and sempster; then, to mark the feminine, -ess was tacked on to -ster, as in song-str-ess, and semp-str-ess.
2. By the suffix -en:

Vix-en, the old feminine of fox (once pronounced vox in some parts of England).

Irregular Forms.
Bridegroom (= the bride's man) is formed from the feminine bride. The word groom onee meant man.

Gander is formed from an old root, gans, a goose.
Drake (=duck-king) is formed from the old roots, end, a duck, and rake, a king.

Lady is the feminine of lord.
Lass (=lad-ess) is the feminine of lad.
Woman is a compound of wife and man.

MAR. [chap.

F Marking
ried woman,
nding feminine
kter.
ng-stress.
e place of the e, -ster merely then, to mark ng-str-ess, and
(once proagland).
rmed from nce meant
$n s$, a goose. e old roots,
III.] NUMBER OF NOUNS.
§ 20. As a substitute for suffixes of gender we can make a compound term by putting a masculine or feminine word to a noun of the common gender; as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { he-goat, } & \text { she-goat, } \\
\text { man-servant, } & \text { maid-servant. }
\end{array}
$$

We have many distinct words for the masculine and the feminine, the use of which does not belong to grammar.

## ii. Number.

§ 21. Number is that form of the noun or pronoun which marks whether we are speaking of one thing or more than one.

When a noun or pronoun signifies one thing, it is said to be of the Singular number.

When a noun or pronoun denotes more than one of the same kind, it is said to be of the Plural number.
§ 22. Formation of the Plural of Nouns. General Rule.-The plural is formed by adding -s to the singular; as, book-s, bag-s, boy-s.

The letter $s$ stands for two distinct sounds: (I) for the sharp sound in book-s, and (2) for the flat sound $z$ in bag-s, boy-s. (See § io, p. ri.)

Our plural $s$ is a shortened form of O. E. as. Thus the plural of smith was first smith-as, then smithees, and finally swiths.

Modifications of the General Eulie.

1. Singular nouns ending in $\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{s h}$, soft $\mathbf{c h}$, $j$ (all containing an $s$ sound), form the plural by the syllable es (pronounced ez); as gas-es, box-es, brush-es, church-es, judg-es.
2. Nouns of English origin ending in $f, f e$, having 1 or any long vowel (except oo) before f, fe, change $f$ into $v$ when adding the sign of the plural.

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :---: |
| loaf, | loaves. |
| wife, | wives. |
| wolf, | wolves. |

The words life, wife, were once written without the final $e$, and the plural es made a distinct syllable.
3. Words ending in $\mathbf{y}$ (not preceded by a vowel) form the plural by changing $y$ into $i$ and adding es; as, $\begin{array}{lc}\text { Singular. } & \text { Plural. } \\ \text { lady, } & \text { ladies. } \\ \text { fly, } & \text { flies. }\end{array}$
§ 23. Remains of older Modes of Forming the Plural.

1. By change of vowel.

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- |
| man | men. |
| foot | feet. |
| tooth | teeth. |
| mouse | mice. |

2. By the ending -en.
(a) ox-en, hos-en, shoo-n (shoes).
(b) ki-ne, childr-en, brethr-en.
sh, soft ch, olural by the s-es, box-es,
n f, fe, haveefore f, fe, the plural.
ut the final $e$,
y a vowel) lding es; as,

RMING THE

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## iii. Case.

§ 26. Case is that form of the noun (or pronoun) which shows its bearing or relation to some other word in the sentence. (See § 14, p. 16.)

The Teacher must first explain the Subject, Predicate, and Object of a Sentence, before attempting to discuss cases. (See § 118, p. ror.)
§ 27. When a noun (or pronoun) is the subject of a sentence, it is said to be in the Nominative case, as John sings, $I$ like to listen.

It is called the Nominative because it names the person or thing that does or suffers the action stated by the verb.

To find the Nominative, ask a question by putting who or zuhat before the verb, and the answer will be the Nominative. Thus, in the example above, if we ask "Who sings?" "Who likes?" the answers will be fokn and $I$, which are the Nominatives.
§ 28. When a noun stands for the person spoken to or addressed, it is said to be in the Vocative case. It has the same form as the Nominative, and is sometimes called the Nominative of Address; as, Father come and look here! O Sir, do not be angry.
§ 29. When a noun stands for the object of an action it is said to be in the Objective case; as, John killed a rat.

The Objective case of nouns is now like the Nominutive, but it was not always so, and is not now so in the case of pronouns. The Objective in English includes- e § $118, \mathrm{p}$. 10r.)
he subject of Jominative
the person or verb.
utting who or e Nominative. ings?" "Who are the Nom-
son spoken Vocative native, and lddress; as, $t$ be angry.
ject of an
e case; as,
ninutive, but of pronouns.
(1) The direct object after a transitive verb; as, "He struck fames." "He hurt his foot." To find the direct object, ask a question with whom or what before the verb, and the answer will give it, e. g. "Whom did he strike?" "What did he hurt?" fames, foot, which are the direct objects.

In Latin we should call the direct object the Accuisative case.
(2) The indirect object, which is equivalent to a noun with the preposition to or for before it; as, "Give fohn his book." "He bears William a grudge." "Build me a house." Williant $=$ to William, fohn $=$ to John, $m e=$ for me.

The indirect object answers to the Dative in Latin and other languages. In O. E. there was a suffix to distinguish this case (in the singular and plural) from the direct object (or accusative).

The form of the verb with to before it, when it denotes purpose, is an indirect object, "What went ye out to see $P$ " to see = for secing.
(3) A noun after a preposition; as, "He put his foot on the ground." "He came from London," \&c.

It must be recollected, that in English the preposition along with a following noun is equal to a case form in Latin.
$\S 30$. When a noun by its form denotes the possessor, it is said to be in the Possessive case; as, "the boy's book," "the cat's tail," "the sun's rays."
(a) The Possessive case is the only form of the noun that expresses a relation by means of an ending or suffix. The difference between the Nominative and Objectize must be thought out, the sense and position being our guides in determining which is used.
(b) We use the Possessive case simply to mark possession. It is chiefly used with reference to living things. The preposition of is used instead of the inflexion in other instances; as, "The roof of the house;" not, as we could once say, "The house's roof."

In Old English this case corresponded to the Genitive in German, Latin, \&c. Nouns of time still keep it ; as, " a week's supply;" "a day's journey."
§ 31. Formation of the Possessive Case.
The Possessive case is formed by adding 's to the Nominative.

Singular man-'s
Plural men-'s
Exception.-Nouns forming their plural by s take the apostrophe only.

## Singular boy-'s sweep-'s Plural boys' sweeps'

In the spoken language the possessive singular does not differ from the possessive plural, boy's and boys' being pronounced alike.
(a) The apostrophe is really a mere written device for distinguishing the possessive case from the plural number of the noun. It came into use about the 17th century. Apostrophe means "turned away," and is so called because it shows that something has been omitted, cp. $e^{\prime} e n=$ even. The real omission is the letter $e$; lord's and lords' were onice writien and pronounced lord-ës.
nark possession. ng things. The flexion in other e; ;" not, as we
the Genitive in t; aṣ, " a week's
ve Case. adding 's to
al by s take
ve singular ll, boy's and
levice for dislural number I7th century. is so called een omitted, he letter $c$; pronounced
(b) At one time it was supposed that 's meant his, and we actually find some writers using such expressions as "the king his crown."
The apostrophe is sometimes used to mark the loss of the possessive sign in the singular, as "Moses' law," "for justice' sake." The sign ' is no real case form.
§ 32. Declension of a Noun.

| Nominative <br> and <br> Vocative <br> Possessive | Singular. | Plural. | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| man's <br> Objective | men <br> man | men's <br> child | children |  |
| child's | children's <br> child | children |  |  |


$\square$
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## CHAPTER IV ADJECTIVES. <br> I.-DEFINITION.

§ 33. The Adjective is a word used with a noun to distinguish or describe the thing named or spoken of.

Adjective (L ma

## II.-CLASSIFICATION.

§ 34. Some Adjectives express quality; as, large, tall, rich: others dencte quantity or number; as, much,

Ajecive (Lat. adjectivum) means " added to." little, ferv, one, both; others again poin out and limit the thing spoken of; as, " $a$ book," "the man." Hence there are three kinds of Adjectives :-
r. Adjectives of Quantity.
2. " "Quality.
3. Demonstrative Adjectives.

Many of the pronouns are used as adjectives; as, this, that, each, every, \&c.
§35. The Adjectives an, a, and the are times called Articles.

An or a is called the Indefinite Article, and the the Definite Article.

An or a is used before a noun to show that any one thing is spoken of; as, "an apple" = any apple.
ith a noun to or spoken of.
; as, large, $\because$ as, much, it and limit "the man."
s, this, that,
are some-
and the
that any y apple.

1v.] ADYECTIVES: COMPARISON.
An drops $n$ and becomes a before a consonant; as, " $a$ book," " $a$ history," " $a$ yew-tree."

An is another form of the word one. Cp. "all of $a$ size $=$ all of one size."

No, meaning not one, is used for "not $a$;" as, "he is no dunce."

The is used before a noun to show that some particular person or thing is spoken of; as, "the man," "the boy."

Parse the as an adverb in "so much the more," "the more the merrier:" here the = by that.

## III.-INFLEXIONS.

§ 36. The Adjective once had inflexions to mark gender, number, and case. It now only changes its form to mark comparison.

## Comparison of Adjectives

§ 37. The Adjective has three forms to express Degrees of Comparison, the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

The Positive is the adjective in its simple form; as, "a small boat," "a tall man."

The Comparative is formed by adding -er to the Positive; as, "a small-er boat," "a tall-er man."

It is used when two things or two sets of things are compared, to show that one of them possesses the quality in a greater or less degree than the other.

The Superlative is formed by adding -est to the Positive; as, "the small-est boat," "the tall-est "man."

It is used when one thing is compared with all others of the same kind; as, "John is the tall-est boy in his class."
(a) When the Positive ends in a silent e, -r and -st only are added; as, large, larg-er, large-st.
(b) When the Positive ends in $y$ (not preceded by a vowel), $y$ is changed into $i$ before the endings; as, happ $y$, happ $i$-er, happi-est.
Words of more than two syllables, and most words' of two syllables, are compared by the adverbs more and most; as, "more valiant," "most valiant." The words that are compared by the inflexions (er and est) are mostly pure English words.

(1) Late has two comparatives and superlatives; of these,

AMMAR. [Chap.
adding -est to ," " the tall-est
pared with all is the tall-est
$e,-r$ and $-s t$ only
preceded by a the endings; as,
es, and most $y$ the adverbs nost valiant." ions (er and est)

NS.
lative.
test.
$t$, next.
t.
oldests.
; of these,
iv.] AD7ECTIVES: COMPARISONS. 31
latter and last (the ones most changed) are the oldest, cp. near, next; clder, eldest.

Last is a contraction of an old form lat-st $=$ lat-est .
Next is a contraction of nighest (cp. O. E. nêh-st, in which the $h$ was a sharp guttural, sounded as $c / h$ in loch).
Near was once comparative.
Elder, eldest have vowel change, as well as inflexion.
(2) The comparatives and superlatives in group (2) are all formed from positives no longer in use.

Better comes from a root, bat = good (cp. our "to boot"), with change of vowel, as in elder.
Best $=$ bet-st $=$ bet-est, cp. last.
Wor-se comes from a root, weor = bad. The suffix -se is another form of the comparative ending -er. Wor-st is shortened from worrest.
Less is formed from a root, las, meaning weak, infirm. The suffix -s (=-se) is another form of the comparative $-r$.
Much once meant large, great.
The mo in mo-re and mo-st also meant great.
3. Farther and farthest are slightly irregular, a th having crept in through a confusion with further (the comparative of the adverb forth).

Rather is now an adverb; it was once an adjective. Its positive was rathe, meaning early.
Former is a corruption of an old formë, meaning first (superlative of fore). The $m$ is an old superlative ending, still found in for-m-ost.
Most superlatives ending in -most contain two superlative suffixes, -m and -ost (=-est).
First is a superlative of fore $:=$ front ; cp. fore leg, forehead. O-ther contains the numeral one (from which the n has gone), and a comparative ending -ther, cp. whes-ther.
Other once meant second; cp. every other day.

## CHAPTER V.

## PRONOUNS.

## I.-DEFINITION.

§ 39. The Pronoun is a word used for a noun.
A Pronoun can stand for an "equivalent to a noun," whether it be a phrase or sentence: " $I t$ mattered not to him whether it were night or day." " $I t$ " here stands for "whether it weve nisht or day."

As the Pronoun stands for the noun, it always refers to something which has been named.
Many Pronouns are used as adjectives: (I) the Possessive cases; (2) some Demonstratives; (3) some Relative and Interrogative Pronouns: (4) some Indefinite Pronouns.

## II.-CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

§ 40. There are five kinds of Pronouns:-
r. Personal Pronouns.
2. Demonstrative Pronouns.
3. Interrogative Pronouns.
4. Relative Pionouns.
5. Indefinite Pronouns.

MAR. [chap.
a noun.
sun," whether m whether it ether it were
fers to some-
e Possessive e and Inter-

## The First Person.

Singular.
Nominative I
Possessive mine, my
Objective (direct) me
Objective (indirect) me

Plural. We
cuiz, ours
us
us

## The Second Person.

Nom. and $\}$ Vocative $\}$
Possessive thine, thy Objective (direct) thee Objective (indirect) thee
ye, you
your, yours you you

For the explanation of indirect object see § 29, p. 25.
(1) I was once written ic and ich.
(2) Mine and thine (O. E. minn and thinn) were once the only possessives of the first and second person in use, The loss of the letter $n$ brought my and thy into use.
${ }^{1}$ The older forms are now only used when no noun follows. In poetry they are sometimes used before words beginning with a vowel or silent h. Cp. the double forms $a n$ and $a$.
(3) The second person singular has gone out of common use.
(4) You, once only objective, has taken the place of the old nominative ye.

The Third Person.

|  | Singrular. |  | Plurai. |  |
| :--- | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Masc. | Fem. | Nenter. |  |
| Nominative | he | she | it | they |
| Possessive | his | her, hers | its | their, theirs |
| Objective (direct) | him | her | it | them |
| Oljective (indirect) him | her | it | them |  |

I. The Pronouns contain endings marking: -
( I Sase: $\mathbf{s}$ in hi-s; $\mathbf{n}$ in mi-ne, thi-ne (all genitive); $\boldsymbol{m}$ in hi-m; : in har (both dative); $r$ in ou-r, you-\%, iñe-r (gen. pl.); $n$ in the-m (dat. pl.). Our-s, yout-s-s, \&c., are double genitives.

## rs

ค. 25.
were once the person in use. d thy into use. when no noun es used before nt h. Cp. the
of common use. place of the old

Plural.
they their, theirs them them
(2) Gender: $t$ in $i-t$ (O. E. hi-t), once marked the neuter, as in $w / h a-t$ and tha-t. She was once the feminine of the definite article. The Old English for she was heop, from which he-r is formed.
Its is quite a modern form. The O. E. was hi-s, which we find in the authorised version of the Scriptures. (A. D. 161I.)

They (with its cases) was once the plural of the, and meant the and those.
§ 43. The Possessive cases of the Pronouns of the three persons are now used as adjectives.

Singular: my, mine; thy, thine; his, her, hers, its.

Plural: our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs.
(1) Notice the use of mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs, without a following noun; as, It is mine, not yours.
(2) Notice that my, thy = Latin meus, tuus, not mei, tui, which must be expressed by of me, of thee.
§ 44. Self is added to the pronouns of the three persons (1) to form Reflexive Pronouns; (2) to express emphasis.

Singular: myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself.

## Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

(1) The Reflexives are used when a person does something to himself; as, " I laid miyself down," "he hurt hime self." In some old expressions the objective case of the simple pronoun is used; as, "I laid me down and slept," "he sat him dow :."
(2) The compounds of self are emphatic in "I saw it $m y$ self;". "he himself has done it," \&c.
Formerly the dative was always joined to self; as himself, not the possessive, as in mysclf, which used to be meself.
(3) Self is sometimes a noun ; as, "your innocent self;" "he thinks much vi self."

## 2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 45. The Demonstratives are used in speaking definitely of the thing named: as, "this is the book I want, but I should like that which is on yonder table, if it is not the same. I have never. seen such books as these."
§ 46. The Demonstrative Pronouns are this, that (with their plurals, these and those); same, such, yon, self-same.

That was originally the neuter of the.
Such means "so-like:" $I$ has been lost.
Yon has now become a mere adjective. The Scotch use yon as a pronoun; as, yon's a grand house."
Self-same : self once meant same.
When such ( $=$ so) comes before an adjective, followed by the conjunction that, it is used as an adverb. He has such great confidence that he will be sure to succeed. $=\mathrm{He}$ has confidence so great that he will, $\mathbb{S} \mathrm{c}$. The use of such in this way is a late usage.

## 3. Interrogative Pronouns.

§ 47. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions:-Who? which? what?

MMAR. [СНАр.
in "I saw it my" self; as himself, h used to be me-
ir innocent self;"
uns.
d in speaking is is the book is on yonder ever seen such
ns are this, 10se); same,

The Scotch use house."
ive, followed by adverb. He has sure to succeed. e will, \&e.. The
ins.
are used in what?

Who is thus declined:-

Nom.
Poss.
Obj. (direct) " (indirect)
who whose (Masc. and Fem. whom Sing. and Plural. whom

Who relates to persons; which to things; what always refers to things, unless it is used as an adjective: What book do you want? What boy has got my book?

For the $s$ in zuhose and the $m$ in whom, see p. 34.
Which is made up of who and like, meaning wholike, or what-like. It once related to persons; as, "Our Father, which art in Heaven." It is also used for the old word whether, which of two.
What was originally the neuter of who. See p. 35.
Who-se is the possessive of what as well as of who; cp. his once the possessive of he and it.
§48. Compound Relatives are formed by adding -ever; as, whoever, whatever, whichever.

## 4. Relative Pronouns.

§ 49. The Relative Pronoun is so called because it relatrs or carries us back to some noun cr pronoun going before (and already stated), called the antecedent. This is the house that I har - built. Happy is the man that findeth wisdom, and the man who getteth understanding.

The Relative Fronouns are who, what, which, that, as.

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Who refers to persons; which to animals and lifeless things; that to person and things.

What is used when the antecedent is omitted. It means that which (or the thing which). "What I have you are welcome to."

Do not call what a compound pronoun.
Who could be used for he who. "Who steals my purse steals trash."
§50. As is used as a relative after same and such; as, "This is the same as that;" "These apples are very gqod, you may eat such as are ripe."

That was sometimes equivalent to that wihich; as, "We speak that we do know."
That never follows the preposition that governs it ; as, "I know the person that you speak of."
§ 5 I. Compound Relatives "are formed by adding -ever and -soever to who, what, and which; as, whosoever, whatsoever, whichsoever.

Some adverbs (originally cases of pronouns) can be combined with a preposition to do duty for relatives, though they are not usually called such :

$$
\text { where-of }=\text { of which, of what. }
$$

where-to $=$ to which, to what. where-by $=$ by which, by what. there-of $=$ of that. \&c., \&c.
§ 52. The Relatives, with the exceptionin of that and as, were once Interrogatives only.

MAR. [chap.
animals and s.
is omitted. "What I

Who steals
ne and such; apples are
ich; as, "We
rns it ; as, "I
formed by what, and oever.
can be comfor relatives,

$$
\text { v.] PRONOUNS: INDEFINI'IE. } 39
$$

They are strictly so in all indirect questions; as, "Tell me who has hurt you." "Ask him what is going on."
§ 53. The Relative who is declined like the interrogative who; see p. 37.

## 5. Indefinite Pronouns.

§ 54. The Indefinite Pronouns do not point out and particularize like the Demonstratives. To this class belong one, none, any, some, each, every, either, neither, other, another (all of which may be used as adjectives); aughi, naught, somebody, something, nothing, anything.

One is the same word as the numeral one. The Fr. on is the Latin homo.
None is made up of ne $=$ not, and one.
Any contains the original form of one, seen in the article an.
Some once meant one, a.
Ea-ch originally meant any one like (of two or more things). The - ch stands for -lich $=$ like ; cp. which, such.
Ever-y is a corruption of ever each, that is, "each and all" (of two or more things).
Ei-ther means any one of two. It can be used as a conjunction. Neither is the negative of either.
For the meaning of -ther, see $\S 38, \mathrm{p} .31$.
O-ther, one of two, see $\S 38$, p. 3 r.
Aught means any whit or any wight. (Wight $=$ person, thing ; cp. "an unlucky wight.")
NVaght, nought is the negative of aught $=$ no whit.
The adverb not is a worn-down form of nought or naught.

Else in what else and something else is an indefinite pronoun, being the genitive of an old root cl , meaning other.

When else means otherwise it is a conjunction.
Something (= someruhat); anything (= at all); nothing ( $=$ not at all), are used as adverbs.
Certain and several are sometimes used as pronouns.

MMAR. [CHAP. indefinite prooot el , meaning ion.
t all); nothing
vi.]

VERBS: CLASSIFICATION.

## CHAPTER VI.

VERBS.

## I.-DEFINITION.

8 55. The Verb is a word that states or asserts what a thing does or is done to; as, "the fire burns," "the child sleeps," "John is beaten."

## II.-CLASSIFICATION.

§ 56. Verbs are classified, according to their meaning, into Transitive and Intransitive.

Transitive Verbs state an action that is not confined to the doer; as, "he locks the gate."

Intransitive Verbs express an action that does not go beyond the doer; as, "the child sleeps," "he behaves well."

Transitive means passing over (Lat. trans-it-a's), because in a sentence containing a transitive verb the sense is not complete unless the object tr which the action passes over is stated; as, "the boy iore his coat."

When a verb that is usually transitive takes no object, it is used intransitively; $\approx=$, "the firc žurns ínightily."
Some intransitive verbs may be mads transitive by means of
a preposition; as, "he laughs," "he laughs-at me;" "the river flows." "the river flows over the land," $=$ " the river overflows the land.
All verbs containing the idea of to cause, or to make an action take place, are called Causative verbs, and require an object ; "he fells the tree" = " he caused the tree to fall;" "he fies his kite" $=$ " he causes his kite to fly."

Some transitive verbs are used reflexively; as, "he turned aside" $=$ "he turned himself aside."

Transitive verbs used in a passive sense become Intransitive; as "the vessel broke in two" = "the vessel was broken in two."
§ 57. Verbs used in the third person only are callediImpersonal Verbs; as, me-ihinks $=$ it appears to me; it seems good; it rains, \&c.

## III.-INFLEXION.

§ 58. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

## I. Voice.

§ 59. Transitive Verbs have two voices; the Active Voice and the Passive Voice.

A verb is in the Active Voice when the subject of the verb stands for the doer or agent of the action; as,
(I) "The boy struck the table."

A verb is in the Passive Voice when the subject of the verb stands for the real object of the action ; as

$$
=
$$

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at me ;" " the $="$ the river
or to make an and require an e to fall;" "he
as, "he turned
e Intransitive; broken in two."
on only are $n k s=\mathrm{it} \mathrm{ap}$
nse, Num-
voices; the
the subject gent of the
le subject of action: as oy."

The sentences quoted above show the the voice is determined by the subject. If it is active, as in ( I , the verb is active; if it is passive, i.e. suffers the action, as in (2), the verb is passive.
In some languages this is shown by the form of the verb; as, Lat. amafur, he is loved.
In English the forms of the verb in -en and -ed are a remnant of the passive voice, and are always used alorg with the verb be, to form the passive voice; as, "the cur which was broken has been mended."

We have other roundabout ways of expressing I ie Passive; as, "the house is being buill," or by the old phrase, "the house is a-building;" a-building $=$ on building.

## 2. Mood.

§ 60. Mood is that form or modification of the verb which marks the mode in which an action is viewed or stated.
$\S 6 \mathrm{r}$. There are three principal moods : (1) Indicative, (2) Subjunctive, (3) Imperative.

When a verb is in any of these moods it requires a subject, and is said to be a finite verb, i.e. limited by the conditions of time, person, \&c.

These are the only moods in English that have distinct forms or are inflexional.
§ 62. The Indicative Mood is that form of the verb that indicates or makes a direct assertion, oi asks some direct question; as, He talks. Who talks?
§62. The Suhiunctive Mood expresses possibility, doubt, dependency; as, "If he but blench I know
my course." "For murder, though it have no tongue, will speak."

This mood is called Subjunctive, because of its use in a sub. joined or dependent sentence ; as, "Love not sleep, lest it b̈ring thee to poverty." "If thou keep promise, I shall end this strife."

Here we see that bring and keep in the dependent sentences are distinguished from the Indicative brings and keepest by their want of inflexion. But the subjunctive once had its own endings, as in Latin. The subjunctive form of the verb is now seldom employed. Its place is sometimes supplied by the use of the verb should or would.

The conjunctions which vere formerly followed by the subfunctive 'enable up to express doubt, condition, \&c., without employing the old inflexional form of the verb. These Conjunctions are if, whether, provided. though, that, so that, lest, until, till, ere, unless, except, which, however, are no parts of the subjunctive mood.

The verb to be has very distinct forms for the subjunctive. See p. 65.
§ 64. The Imperative Mood is that form of the verb that expresses a command or entreaty. "Call him back." "Pardon my fault."

The Imperative contains the simplest form or ront of the verb.
The plural imperative once had the suffix th to distinguish it from the singular $;$ as, loveth $=$ love ye.

The Imperative is only used in the second person.
In such expressions as "let me sing," " let him sing," parse let as an independent verb, in the imperative mood. Do not parse let sing as one verb.
§ 65. Other forms, not finite (see p. 43), are sometimes called Moods. These are-
it have no
its use in a sub. eep, lest it bring shall end this
ndent sentences and keepest by nce had its own the verb is now olied by the use
ved by the subon, \&c., without b. These Conhat, so that, lest, are no parts of
orms for the
t form of the eaty. "Call
root of the verb. to distinguish
erson.
m sing," parse nood. Do not
3), are some-

1. The form of the verb with to before it, called the Infinitive; as, to sing.

The Infinitive once had no to before it, but was expressed by the suffix $-a n$; as, drinc-an, to drink. The Infinitive without to comes after the verbs may, can, shall, will, dare, must, \&c.; as, "he may be," "he will be," \&c.

The Simple Infinitive is a noun in the nominative or objective (direct) case ; "to see is to believe," " he wants to see."

There is another kind of Infinitive called the Dative Infnitive, because it was originally the dative of the simple infinitive.

It is now often an indirect object. A house to let $=$ a house for letting; easy to find = easy for finding; the cup I have to drink (=for drinking). It sometimes marks purpose, and is equivalent to an Adverb; as, he came to see me = he came for the purpose of seeing me. (See, p. 98.)
2. The forms of the verb in -ed, -en, -ing, are called Participles, and they are also used as adjectives.
> " Then rode Geraint into the castle court, His charger trampling many a prickly star Of sprouted thistle on the broken stones. He look'd, and saw that all was ruinous. Here stood a shatter'd archway plumed with fern, And here had fall' $n$ a great part of a tower."

These forms in -ed, -en, -ing, were called participles because they participate of the nature of adjectives (in qualifying a noun) and of verbs (in governing an objective case). The participle in -ing once ended in -end, -and, or -inde.

Be careful to distinguish a noun in -ing from a participle in -ing; this is a fine building (noun); he is building a house (participle).
The form in -ing (O. E. -ung) is a noun in the following passages: The house is buiciiing = the house is a-building;

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he is fond of building ( $=$ of the building of) houses; he talked of your coming here to-day; he took to hunting. See Syntax, p. 92.

The form in -ing is called the Present participle; the forms in -ed and -en are called Passive participles.

## 3. Tense.

§ 66. The form or modification of the verb used to indicate time is called Tense (Fr. temps, Lat. tempus).

Time may be considered as

1. Present
2. Past.
3. Future.

There are three Tenses.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 1. Present } & \text { I speak. } \\
\text { 2. Past } & \text { I spoke. } \\
\text { 3. Future } & \text { I shall speak, } \\
& \text { You will speak, } \\
& \text { He will speal. }
\end{array}
$$

The state of the action may be considered as
( 1 ) Indefinite; as, I zerite.
(2) Progressive; as, I am writing.
(3) Completed or perfect; as, I have written.

The words be, have, shall, will, which help to form tenses; are called auxiliary verbs.

Each tense then has three forms, according to the following scheme:

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couses ; he talked ing. See Syntax,
ent participle; ive participles.
the verb used r. temps, Lat. $a k$, speak, bea\%.
dered as
written.
to form tenses;
ording to the

| Tense. | Indefinite. | Imperfect and Progressive. | Perfect. | Perfect and Progressive. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | (I) I praise <br> (2) I am praised | (1) I am praising <br> (2) I am being praised | (I) I have praised <br> (2) I have been praised | (1) I have been praising |
| Past | (I) I praised <br> (2) I was praised | (1) I was praising <br> (2) I was being praised | (I) I had praised <br> (2) I had been praised | (I) I had been praising |
| Future | (1) I shall praise <br> (2) I shall be praised | (1) I shall be praising | (I) I shall have praised <br> (2) I shall have been praised | (1) I shall have been praising |

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Notice that only the present and past tenses of the active voice, indicative mood, are inflected tenses.
§ 67. An emphatic form of the present and past tenses may be made by using do.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Present } & \text { I do love. } \\
\text { Past } & \text { I did love. }
\end{array}
$$

But it is not emphatic when used in interrogative and negative sentences, but an auxiliary verb.

Do you hear? Did you listen? I do not hear. I did not listen. (See note on Do, p. 72.)

## 4. Person and Number.

§68. The verb is Singular when it agrees with
subject in the singular number, and Plural when
§68. The verb is Singular when it agrees with
a subject in the singular number, and Plural when it agrees with a subject in the plural; as,

Singular: "he writes." Plural: "they write."
There are three persons (as in the pronouns, see $\S 4 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{r} \cdot 33$ ), the first, the second, and the third.

The plural has no endings to mark person. We know the person by looking to the subject; as, "we speak," "you speak," " the boys speak," or "they speak."

The first person singular has no ending; as, "I talk."

The second person, which is seldom used, has eest (-st) ; as, " thou talk-est."

MAR. โСнар.
es of the active
ent and past
interrogative y verb. not hear. I
agrees with lural when
onouns, see the third.
erson. We t; as, "we they speak." ing; as," I
d, has -est

The third person (present) has $-s$, with the old form -eth ; as, "he talk-s," or "talk-eth.".

These endings belong only to the indicative mood.
The subjunctive has no person-endings.
We might do without any endings, because the personal pronoun marks the person.

These endings were once pronouns themselves. Cp. a-m, ar-t, \&c.

## 5. Conjugation.

§ 69. Verbs may be divided into two classes:
(I) Those that make their past tense by -d or-t; as, $\begin{array}{rrr}\text { Present, I love. } & \text { Past, }, & \text { I love- } d \text {. } \\ \text { I sleep. } & \text { I slep- } t .\end{array}$
(2) Thuse that make their past tense by changing the vowel of the present; as,

## Present, I write. Past, I wrote.

Verbs of the first class are called Weak, and those of the second Strong verbs.
Be careful to notice that a strong verb adds nothing to the past tense. Thus got, the past tense of get, is a strong verb; but tol-d, the past tense of tell, is a weak verb.
The change of vowel in the past tense of strong verbs, as fall, felli, \&c., must not be confounded with the shortening of the vowel, as in feed and fed (once fed-de).
The Passive Participles of all strong verbs once ended in een; but this suffix has fallen away in many verbs; as, drunk $=$ drunken, \&c. Passive participles of weak verbs end in ed $(-d,-t)$; those of strong verbs never hâd this ending, and when they take it they become weak; as, he was tol-d (weak); he has mozun (strong); he has mowed (weak).

## § 70. Classification of Strong Verbs.

I Strong verbs are classified according to the changes of their central vowels.

## CLASS I.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a, o. | e. | a, o. |
| 'fall | fell | fallen |
| hold | held | held, holden* |
| blow | blew | blown |
| grow | grew | grown |
| know | knew | known |
| throw | threw | thrown |
| crow | crew | crown* |
| hang | hung | hung [hangen]* |
| beat | beat | beaten |

Forms marked thus * are archaic.
Mow, sew, herw, once belonged to this class. Their strong participles, mown, sown, hewn, are sometimes used.

Hang once made a past tense heng.
Go of gang has butrowed its past tense werai fiom wena, to go
Gone is a strong past participle.

## Verbs.

hanges of their
ss. Part.

Ilen
eld, holden*
lown
rown
nown
rown
own*
ang [hangen]*
eaten

Their strong sed.
mineriu, to go.
vı.]

STRONG VERBS.

CLASS II.

| Pres. i. | Past. a, u, ou. | Pass. Part. <br> u, Ou. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| begin | began | begun |
| cling | clung, clang* | clung |
| drink | drank | drunk |
| run | ran | run |
| swim | swam | swum |
| spin | spun, span* | spun |
| sing | sang | sung |
| shrink | shrank | shrunk |
| sink | sank | sunk |
| fling | flung, flang* | flung |
| sling | slung, slang* | slung |
| ring | rang | rung |
| slink | slunk | slunk |
| spring | sprang | sprung |
| sting | stung, stang* | stung |
| swing | swung, swang* | swung |
| wring | wrung, wrang* | wrung |
| win | won, wan* | won |
| bind | bound | bound, bounden* |
| find | found | frund |
| fight | fought | fought |
| grind | ground | ground |
| wind | wound | wound |
| e. | 0. | 0. |
| help | holp* | holpen |
| melt | molt* | molten |
| swell | -... | swollen |
| burst [berste]* | burst [barst]* | burst [bursten]* |

Help, melt, swell, have now the weak form for past tense and passive participle.

CLASS III.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| ---: | ---: | :---: |
| i. | a. | i. |

(I) bid
give lie
sit
ea (ec), e.
(2) eat
get
tread see weave
bade, bid
gave
lay
sat
a (0).
ate
got, gat*
trod
saw
wove
quoth
was
bidden, bid given lien, lain* sat [siten]* ea (ee), 0 . eaten
gotten, got*
trodden, trod seen
woven

....
....

Words marked thus * are archaic.

## CLASS IV.

| Pres. | Past. | Pass. Part. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. | 0, oo, e. | a (o). |
| awake | awoke | awoke |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| lade | $\ldots$. | laden |
| grave | $\ldots$ | graven |
| stand | stood | stood [standen]* |
| shave | $\ldots \ldots$ | shaven |
| shake | shook | shaken |
| swear | swore | sworn |
| take | took | taken |
| draw | drew | drawn |
| slay | slew | slain |

Lade, grave and shave have weak forms for the past tense and passive participle.

* Archaic.
ss. Part.

den, bid
n
, lain*
[siten]*
(ee), 0 .
n
en, got*
den, trod
s. Part
(o).
ke
ken
en
1 [standen]*
en
en
n
n

18 past tense

CLASS V.

| Pres. <br> i (long). | Past. <br> o. | Pass. Part. <br> abide |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bite | abode | abode, abiden* |
| brive | bit | bitten |
| chide | drove | driven |
| ride | chid, chode: | chidden, chid |
| rise | rode, rid* | ridden, rid |
| rive | rose | risen |
| shine | rove | riven |
| shrive | shone | shone |
| slide | shrove | shriven |
| smite | slid | slidden, slid |
| strode | smote, smit* | smitten |
| thrive | strode | stridden |
| write | throve | thriven |
| strike | wrote, writ* | written |
| strive | struck | struck, stricken |
|  | strove | striven |

Chide, rive, slide, have also weak forms in the past tense and passive participle.

CLASS VI.

| Pres. <br> ee, oo. | Past. |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| freeze | o. | Pass. Part. |
| seethe | froze | frozen |
| cleave | sod* | sodden, sod* |
| choose | clove | cloven |
| lose | chose | chosen |
| shoot | $\ldots$. | lorn* |
| fly | shot | shot, shotten* |
|  | flew | flown. |

Seethe, cleave, lose, have weak forms in the past tense and passive participle.

## § 7r. Classification of Weak Verbs.

We may divide the weak verbs roughly into two classes.

1. Those that have $-e d,-d$, or $-t$ in the past tense and passive participle.
2. Those that have lost the $-d$ or $-t$ in the past tense and passive participle.

## Class I.

We often write $-e d$, but we only sound it when the verb ends' in $-d$ or $-t$, as mend-ed, lift-ed.
In all other cases it is pronounced $-d$ or $-t$, as dragged $=$ dragd. locked $=$ lockt.
(1) This -d was once a separate verb and meant did. I loved $=I$ love-did.
(2) $-d$ becomes $-t$ after a sharp mute (for reason see p. II) and sometimes after $l, m, n$, as slept, felt, burnt, dreamt.
(3) Some verbs shorten the long vowel in the past tense and passive participle; as, hear, heard; flee, fled; sleep, slept (see § 13, p. 15 ).
(4) A few have not the same vowel in the present as in the past.
(a) tell, tol-d, tol-d.
buy, bought, bought.
(b) teach, taught, taught. work, wrought, wrought.
(5) Some have lost an internal letter; as, made = maked; had $=$ haved.

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Verbs.
ly into two
past tense
in the past

$r-t$, as
did. I loved
n see $\mathrm{P} . \mathrm{II}$ ) camt.
st tense and
$p$, slept (see
nt as in the
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
Class II.
I. Some verbs of this class shorten their vowel in the past tense and passive participle, and look like strong verbs.
feed, fed, fed.
\&c., \&c., \&c.
2. Others ending in $l d$ or $n d$ change the $d$ into $t$ in the past tense and passive participle.
build, built, built.
$\operatorname{sen} d, \operatorname{sen} t, \operatorname{sen} t$.
\&c., \&c., \&c.
3. A third kind ending in $d$ or $t$ have the three forms (present, past, and passive participle) alike.
rid, rid, rid.
set, set, set.
\&c., \&c., \&c.
All verbs of Class IU. had an inflexion in Old English, e.g.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Past Tense. } & \text { Pass. Part. } \\
\text { fêd-de } & \text { fêd-ed }=\text { fed. } \\
\text { sende }[=\text { send-de }] & \text { send-ed }=\text { sent. } \\
\text { set-te } & \text { sett-ed }=\text { set. }
\end{array}
$$

As the verb in both conjugations is inflected only in the present and past indefinite tenses, the forms. of the English verb are easily mastered.

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## § 72. I.-STRONG CONJUGATION. To Smite.

Present, smite. Past, smote. Passive Participle, smiten.

## Present Tense.

Singular.

Indicative Mood.
I. I smite
2. Thou smit-est
3. He smite-s 1 smit-eth

Subjunctive Mood.

1. I smite
2. Thou smite
3. He smite

Plural.

1. We smite
2. Ye, you smite
3. They smite
I. We smite
4. Ye, you smite
5. They smite Past Tense. Singular.
I. I smote
6. Thou smot-est
7. He smote
8. I smote
9. Thou smote
10. He smote Plural.
11. We smote
12. Ye, you smote
13. They smote
14. We smote
15. Ye, you smote
16. They smote

Imperative Mood.
Singular-Smite (thou). Plural-Smite (ye, you). Infinitive, to smite. Present Participle, smit-ing. Passive Participle, smit-en.

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ION.

Participle,
te
smite
nite
$a i t e$ smite smite
mote ote
te
smote
note
(ye, you). , smit-ing.
vi.]
§ 73. II. WEAK CONJUGATION.

## To Lift.

Pres., lift. Past, lift-ed. Pass. Part., lift-ed.

## Present Tense.

## Singular.

Indicative Mood.
I. I lift
2. Thou lift-est 3. He lift-s (-th)

## Plural.

1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

Subjunctive Mood.
I. I lift
2. Thou lift
3. He lift
I. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

Past Tense.
Singular.

1. I lift-ed
2. Thou lift-ed-st
3. He lift-ed

Plural.

1. We lift-ed
2. Ye, you lift-ed
3. They lift-ed
4. I lift-ed
5. Thou lift-ed
6. He lift-ed :
r. We lift-ed
7. Ye, you lift-ed
8. They lift-ed

Imperative Mood.
Singular-lift (thou). Plural-lift (ye, you).
Infinitive, to lift. Present Participle, lift-ing. Passive Participle, lift-ed.

## 58

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§ 74. Alphabetical List of Strong Verbs.
The forms in italics are weak. Those marked thus * are archaic.

ass. Part.
bode risen woke
zoaked aken rked irn orne taten gun holden, beheld dden, bid unden,* bound ten, bit
wn
ken st, bursten* dden, chid sen

| Pres. draw | Past. drew | Pass. Part. drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| drink | drank | drunk, drunken |
| dirive | drove, drave* | driven |
| eat | ate | eaten |
| fall | fell | fallen |
| fight | fought | foughten,* fought |
| find | found | found |
| fling | flung, flang* | flung |
| fly | flew | flown |
| forbear | forbore | forborne |
| forget | forgot <br> fcrgat* | forgotten |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| freeze | froze | frozen |
|  | .... | frorn, frore* |
| get | got, gat* | got, gotten |
| give | gave | given |
| go | went | gone |
| grave | graved | graven |
| en-grave | .... | en-graven* |
|  | engraved | engraved |
| grind | ground | ground |
| grow | grew | grown |
| hang | hung | hung |
|  | hanged | hanged |
| heave | hove | .... |
|  | heaved | heaved |
| help | $\cdots$ | holpen |
|  | helped | helped |
| hew | ... | hewn |
|  | herwed | hewed |
| hold | held | held, holden |
| know | knew | known |
| lade | .... | laden, loaden |
|  | laded | laded |
| lie | lay | lain, lien* |




$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { P2 PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [CHAP } \\
\text { § 75. Alphabetical List of Weak Verbs } \\
\text { Apparently Irregular. }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Class I.



Veak Verbs
R.

Pass. Part. bereft bereaved* besought brought ournt
ought aught left
rept ealt reamt reamed velt It
d
, hidden
pt
elt
ned
at
nt
ned
t
bleed
breed
build
cast
clothe
cost
cut
bend

Past.
pent
penned
rapt
rotted
said
sought
sold
shod
slept
spelt
spilt
staid
swept
taught
told
thought
wept
wrought
worked

## Class II.

Pres. Past. Pass. Part.
bent
bled
bred
built
cast
clad
clothed
cost
cut

Pass. Part.
pent
penned
rapt
rotten
rotted
said
sought
sold
shod
slept
spelt
spilt
staid
swept
taught
told
thought
wept
wrought
worked

Pass. Part.
bent
bended
bled
bred
built
cast
clad
clothed
cost
cut



* spitted occurs in ryth century writers.
ass. Part.
ed
ill
ilded
int
ep. 50.
ted
t
ut
it
d
Singular.

1. I was
2. Thou was-t
3. He was

ANOMALOUS VERBS.
§ 76. ANOMALOUS VERBS.

## To Be.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.
Singular.
I. I abm
2. Thou ar-t
3. He is

Plural.

1. We are
2. Ye, you are
3. They are

Past Tense.
Plural.

1. We were
2. Ye, you were
3. They were

Subjunctive Mood.
Present Tense.
Singular.

1. I be
2. Thou be
3. He be

Plural.

1. We be
2. Ye, you be
3. They be

Past Tense.
Singular.

1. I were
2. Thou were, * were
3. He were $\square$

Plural.

1. We were
2. Ye, you were
3. They were

## Imperative Mood.

Singular-be (thou). Plural-be (ye, you). Infinitive, to be. Present Participle, be-ing. Passive Participle, bee- $n$.

Can.
Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I can
2. Thou can-st
3. He can

Plural.

1. We can
2. Ye, you can
3. They can
Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I cou-l-d
2. Thou cou-l-d-st
3. He cou-l-d

## Plural.

1. We cou-l-d
2. Ye, you cou-l-d
3. They cou-l-d

## Shall.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I shall
2. Thou shal-t
3. He shall

Plural.
I. We shall
2. Ye, you shall
3. They shall

Past Tense.
Singular.

1. I shoul-d
2. Thou shouì-(i)-st̀
3. He shoul-d

Plural.

1. We shoul- ${ }^{2}$
2. Ye, you shoul $-\bar{i}$
3. They shoul-d

## Will.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I will
2. Thou wil-t
3. He will

Plural.

1. We will
2. Ye, you will
3. They will

Past Tense.
Sirgular.

1. I woul-d
2. Thou woul-d-st
3. He woul-d

Plural.

1. We woul-d
2. Ye, you woul-d
3. They woul-d

## May.

Indicative Mood.

> Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may
2. Thou may-est, may-st
3. He may

Plural.

1. We may
2. Ye, you may
3. They may

## Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I migh-t
2. Thou migh-t-est, migh-t-st
3. He migh-t

Plural.

1. We migh-t
2. Ye, you migh-t
3. They migh $-t$

## Owe.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I owe
2. Thou owe-st
3. He owe-s

Plural.

1. We owe
2. Ye, you owe
3. They owe

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I ough-t
2. Thou ough-t-est
3. He ough-t

## Plural.

1. We ough-t
2. Ye, you ough- $t$
3. They ough- $t$

## Dare.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I dare
2. Thou dar-est, dar-st
3. He dare, dare-s

Plural.

1. We dare
2. Ye, you dare
3. They dare

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I durs- $t$
2. Thou durs-t
3. He durs- $t$

Plural.

1. We durs- $t$
2. Ye, you durs-f
3. They durs-t
I. I
4. T
5. F
vi.] ANOMALOUS VERBS.

## Have.

## Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I have
2. Thou ha-st
3. He ha-s, ha-th

Plural.

1. We have
2. Ye, you have
3. They have

Past Tense.
Singular.

1. I ha-d
2. Thou ha-dust
3. He ha-d

Plural.

1. We ha-d
2. Ye, you ha-d
3. They ha-d

Imperative Mood.
Singular-have (thou). Plural-have (ye, you).
Infinitive, to have. Present Participle, hav-ing. Passive Participle, ha-d.

Do.
Present Tense.

Singular.
I. I do
2. Thou do-st, do-est
3. He doe-s, do-th, do-eth

Plural.

1. We do
2. Ye, you do
3. They do
Past Tense.

Singular.
I. I did
2. Thou did-st, didd-est
3. He did

Plural.
r. We did
2. Ve, you ditu
3. They did Singular-do (thou). Plural-do (ye, you). Infinitive, to do. Present Participle, do-ing. Passive Participle, do-ne. § 77. Remarks on Anomalous Verbs.

## I. Be.

1. Am, art, is, are, are formed from an obsolete root as, to be. The $m$ in am is identical with the pronoun me.
2. Was is the past tense of the old strong verb wes-an, to be. The $r$ in were represents an older $s$.
3. Bee- h shows that the old verb be was a strong verb.
4. We sometimes find, as late as the 17th century, the verb be conjugated fully in the Present Indicative.

Singular.

1. I be
2. 'Thou bee-st, be'st
3. He be [be-th, be-eth]
4. He be [be-th, be-eth] 3. They be-n, bi-n, be
5. When the verb is =exists, lives, it is not to be parsed as an auxiliary verb. (See § 66, p. 46.)

## 2. Can.

This verb once signified " to know,". "to be able," cp. to con, cunning, uncouth.

Could. This form is weak. The $l$ has crept in from false analogy to should and would.

## 3. Shall.

r. "I shall". once meant "I owe," "I am bound to," "I ought," "I must." It still has this sense in the second and third persons. It is seen more plainly in such expressions as " you should be kind to one another."

## Plural.

I. We be-n, bi-n, be
2. Ye be-n, bi-n, be
(ye, you).
PLE, do-ing.

## Verbs.

olete root as, oun me.
erb wes-an, to
rong verb. atury, the verb
al.
i-n, be
-n, be
bi-n, be be parsed as
le,", cp. to con,
in from false
ound to," "I second and xpressions ac
2. Shall is only an auxiliary of the future in the first person, and in interrogative sentures a the second person; as, " shall you go." It is an inriaperc at verb ir the second and third persons.
3. Should is a wak a form. When it means ought it must be parsed as an ind endent verb. It sometimes has a present sense. In such expressions as, "should you see him" (= if you see him) $=$ "if "you shall see him," should must be parsed as subjunctive past; used with the force of a present tense.

## 4. Will.

Will once meant " to desire," " zuish.".
It is used as a sign of the future in the second and third persons. It is an independent verb in the first person, and expresses determination or purpose.

Won't = wol not contains the Middle English form of will.
Would is a weak past tense, like should.
When will means to desire, exercise ihe will, it is conjugated regularly. Will in this sense is often found for willest.

## 5. May.

May once meant "to be able" (cp." Do what I may, I cannot please him"). It expresses also permission.
It must be parsed as an independent and not as an auxiliary verb.

In such expressions as " may they be happy," "teach me that I may be able to learn," may is in the subjunctive mood."
Might is a weak past tense. It preserves the $g$ of may, O. E. mag.

## 6. Must.

Must is the past tense of an old verb, mot, "to be able," "be obliged." It expresses mictossity, and is now used with a present and future sense.

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## 7. Ought.

Ought is the past tense of the verb owe. It has now a present as well as a past meaning when used to express duty, obligation.

Owe originally meant " to have," " to own," hence "to have as a duty."

When owe means " to have to pay," "to be in debt," it is conjugated regularly: as, ( 1 ) owe, (2) owest, (3) owes; past tense, owed.

## 8. Durst.

Durst is the old past tense of dare. When dare means to challenge, it is conjugated regularly, and has dared for its past tense and passive participle.

## 9. Wit.

The old verb to wit, " to know," makes its present tense wot; its past tense is wist. These forms are used in the English adverb.

## Io. Have.

Hast $=$ hav'st $=$ havesi.
Hath = hav'th = haveth.
Has = Lav's = haves.
Had = hav'd = havel.

## II. Do.

Did is not a weak form, like had, but a strong verb, being originally the reduplicated perfect tense of do, cp. Lat. dedi.

It is used as (I) a tense auxiliary in negative and interrogative sentences $;$ as, "I do not believe it;" "Do you believe it?" (2) To express emphasis: "I do believe that he did do it."
$A R$. [CHAP.
thas now a express $d u t y$,
ace "to have
$t t^{\prime \prime}$ it is con; past tense,
re means to for its past
$t$ tense wot; the English used as an

## 12. Go.

Go has lost its true past tense. We supply its loss by the verb went, the old past tense of wend, "to turn."

Gone shows that go was originally a strong verb, cp. done.
13. Let, in "let me go," is the imperative mood of the verb let, to allow, permit.
14. The subjunctive mood of anomalous verbs, with the exception of the verb "to be," has no suffixes to mark person.

## Auxiliary Verbs.

§ 78. The auxiliary verbs used for forming tenses are be, have, shall, will, do. : The verb to be is used for forming the passive voice. To conjugate the verb in all its parts, see tables, p. 47 and pp. 56,57, 65-69.

CHAPTER VII.

## ADVERBS.

## I.-DEFINITION.

§ 79. An Adverb is a word that modifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb. (See page 13.)

> II.-CLASSIFICATION.

Adverbs may be divided into the following classes:
r. Adverbs of time. When? Then, now, often, soon, \&c.
2. Adverbs of place. Whers? Here, there, whither, \&c.
3. Adverbs of manner. How? (1) Well, ill, badly, so, thus. Degree, quality ; (2) little, much, quite, very. Affirmation, negation; (3) yes, indeed, no, not.
4. Adverbs of cause and effect: Why? Therefore, thence, wherefore, whence, \&c.
vII.] ADVERBS: $I N F L E X I O N S$.

## III.-INFLEXIONS.

Most Adverbs are compared by-more and most.
See Adjectives, § 38, p. 30.
§ 80. Irregular Comparison of Adverbs.

| well | better | best |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ill | worse | worst |
| much | more | most |
| forth | further | furthest |
| far | farther | farthest |
| late | later | last |
| [rathe] | rather | [rathest] |

§ 8r. Adverbs are formed from other parts of speech.
I. Nouns and Adjectives:-need-s (of necessity), noway-s, alway-s, uneware-s, on-ce, whil-s-t. This $s$ is an old genitive suffix. Whil-om and seld-om contain an old dative ending.
2. Pronouns:-
whe-re, where whence; wiry, the-re, the-n, \&c.; ie-re, \&c.
3. Nuar: or Aljectives compounded with a Pre-position:--
an-on (nt arice), a-bed, a-broad, of kin, of late, of
Why? old, io-la." be-times, by turns, cp. at last, fo once, meanwhile ( $F$ in the mean while)

## CHAPTER VIII.

## PREPOSITIONS.

## I.-DEFINITION.

§ 82. Prepositions join words to mark certain relations. ${ }^{1}$ See p. ${ }^{1} 3$.

By means of Prepositions we are able fo express the relation of things to other things, or the relation of things to their actions or attributes. The most common relations expressed by Prepositions are place, time, manner, cause.

A Preposition joins a noun (or pronoun)
(I) to another noun (or pronoun): There is a book on the table.
(2) to an adjective: He is fond of his book.
(3) to a verb: John goes to school in time.

## II.-CLASSIFICATION.

§83 Prepositions are either simple or compound.

1. Simple :-
$a t$, by, for, in, of, off, out, to, up, with, on.
2. Compound :-
(x) af-ter, ov-er, un-der, throu-gh, b-ut, a-b-out, a-b-ove, un-to, in-io, be-hind, with-in, out of, fro-m, for-th, out-side, in-side.
(2) a-mong, a-gain, a-head, be-side, be-yond, a-thwart, be-trvixt, a-round, a-long.
(3) From verbs (participles): owing to, notwithstanding, except, save.
(4) We have many adverbial phrases; as, instead of, close to, because of, on account of, in spite of ( $=$ in despite of).
(5) Round = around; down $=a$-down ( $=$ of down, i. e. off or from the hill).
Nigh, near, nearer, next, since, are sometimes used as prepositions.

Past, the passive participle of the verb pass, is a preposition in "I went past the church."

## CHAPTER IX.

## CONJUNCTIONS:

## I.-DEFINITION:

§ 84. Conjunctions join sentences. See p. 13 .
Sometimes they join two independent words together; as, "three and three make six."

## II.-CLASSIFICATION.

§ 85. Conjunctions are of two kinds :-

1. Co-ordinate Conjunctions, which join two independent sentences: and, either, or, neither, nor, but, also, moreover, besides. (See § 126, p. 105.)
2. Subordinate Conjunctions, which join a principal sentence to another that depends upon it for its full meaning: for, because, since, as, if, unless, lest, that, whether, till, ere, hence, while, than, so, \&c. (See § $\mathbf{I} 30, \mathrm{p}$. 108.)

Some conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called correlatives: both-and, what-and, as well-as, either-or, \&c.
We use many compound expressions as conjunctions: like. wise, in order that, to the eind that, so that, how be it, although, albeit, nevertheless, however, notwithstanding, whereas, provided that.

See Analysis of Sentences, p. ror.

## CHAPTER X.

## INTERJECTIONS.

See p. 13 . ogether; as,
join two sither, nor, 105.) oin a prinpon it for enless, lest, \&c. (See
lled correla-her-or, \&c. tions: like. howe be it, ithstanding,
§ 86. Interjections, being mere exclamations, do not stand in grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence : oh! alas!

Many interjections are phrases cut short; as, goodbye! = God be with you; marry! = the Virgin Mary; wassail = was (be) hale (healthy); cp. hail! all hail! welcome! adieu!

Many adverbs, prepositions, and even verbs, are used as interjections: how ! well! out! look ! behold!

## CHAPTERXI.

## WORD-MAKING.

§87. A word that cannot be reduced to a simpler form is called a root; as, man, good, drink.
§ 88. Particles added to the end of the root are called suffixes; as, man-ly, good-ness, drink-ing.

Suffixes are said to form derivatives; as, man-ly, is derived from man.
§ 89. Particles placed before the root are called prefixes; as, un-man-ly, mis-deed, \&c.

Prefixes are used to form compounds; as, forbid, gain-say, \&c.

Prefixes were once independent words. Many of them are still so used: cp. mis-take = take a-miss; fore-know = know before; under-stand, \&c.
§ 90. Compounds are also formed by putting two words together; as, black-bird, ink-stand.
§ 9r. Besides English suffixes we have very many others that we have borrowed from French, Latin, and Greek.
§ 92. These suffixes mark different notions and relations. Some denote the doer or agent; others form abstract nouns; a few express diminution or augmentation.
root are k-ing. man-ly,
e called
as, for-
them are $N=$ know putting ry many , Latin, ons and ; others ation or

## English Suffixes.

> § 93. I.-NOUNS.
i. The Agent:-
-er (-ar, -or): bak-er, do-er, begg-ar, li-ar, sail-or, cloth-i-er, law-y-er.
-en: (fem.) vix-en.
-ster: (fem.) spin-ster. It merely marks the agent in song-ster, malt-ster.
2. Abstract Nouns, marking state, action, condition, being, \&c. :-
-dom: wis-dom, king-dom.
-hood, -head: god-head, man-hood.
-ing: learn-ing, writ-ing.
-ness: good-ness, dark-ness.
-red: hat-red, kind-red.
-ship: friend-ship, lord-ship.
-th, -t: heal-th, steal-th, bread-th, dep-th wid- $t h$, heigh- $t$, drif- $t$, sigh- $t$.
3. Diminutives:-
-en: chick-en.
-ing: farth-ing, tith-ing, shill-ing, whit-ing, wild-ing.
-ling: duck-ling, gos-ling.
-kin: lamb-kin, nap-k̈in.

## § 94. II.-ADJECTIVES,

-ed (like having): wretch-ed, boot-ed, letter-ed. -en (made of): gold-en, wood-er.
-ful (full of) : truth-ful, fear-ful.
-ish (somewhat like) : girl-ish, whit-ish.
-ly (like) : god-ly, good-ly, love-ly.
-like : god-like, war-like.
-less (without): shame-less, house-less.
-y (pertaining to, abounding in) : hill-y, storm-y.
-some (full of): game-some, win-some.
-ward (turning to): fro-ward, south-wward.
-teen, -ty (ten): nine-teen, twen-ty.
-th (order): six-th, seven-th.
-fold (folded) : two-fold, many-fold.
-ern (direction to): east-ern, north-ern.

## § 95. III.-ADVERBS.

-ly (like): god-ly, bad-ly, on-ly.
-ling, -long (=-wise, -ways): flat-ling, head-long, side-long.
-meal (division): limb-meal, piece-mear.
-ward, -wards (turning to): hither-ward, upwards.
-wise (manner, mode) : other-wise, no-wise, likewise.

## § 96. IV.-VERBS.

1. Frequentative:
-k: tal-k, har-k, stal-k.
-le, -1 : dibb-le, spark-le, start-le, knee-l.
-er: ling-er, flitt-er, falt-er.
2. Causatize (making):
-en, -n: fatt-en, short-en, length-en, lear-n.
Some few Causative Verbs are formed from Intransitive Verbs by vowel-change :

| Intransitive. | Transitive. |
| :--- | :--- |
| fall | fell |
| sit | set |
| rise | raise |
| $\& c$. | $\& c$. |

## § 97. Compounds.

Two words may be joined together to make a new word, as rail-road, steam-boat, Sic.

The accent of the true compound is on the first syllable ; e.g. A crow is a biack bird. but not a blackbird.

The hyphen is used in writing to mark a compound; as, passer-óy, coast-line.

## I.-NOUN COMPOUNDS.

r. Adjective + Noun : black-bird, biue-bell.
2. Noun or Pronoun + Noun: noon-tide, shoemaker, hearts-ease, he-goat.
3. Noun + Verb : iell-tale, scare-crow, dare-devil.

$$
\rightarrow
$$

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## II.-ADJECTIVE COMPOUNDS.

1. Noun + Adjective : sky-blue, blood-red, footsore, sea-sick, heart-rending, heart-broken.
2. Adjective + Noun: bare-foot.
3. Adjective + Adjective: blue-green, red-hot, new-. made, fair-haired, six-sided.

## III.-VERB COMPOUNDS.

1. Noun + Verb: back-bite, way-lay.
2. Adjective + Verb: white-wash, rough-hew.
3. Verb + Adverb : doff (do-off), don (do-on).

For Adverb Compounds, see p. 75.

## § 98. English Prefixes.

A- (on, in): $a$-bed, $a$-shore, $a$-b-out.
A- (out of, from): $a$-rise, $a$-wake, $a$-go.
A- (of, off): $a$-kin, $a$-new, $a$-down.
After- (following) : after-noon, after-ward:
Al- (all) : al-one, $l$-one, $a l$-most, $a l$-so.
At- (to) : at-one, at-onement.
Be- (by) : ( x ) It forms transitive and intransitive verbs: $b e$-speak, $b e$-think, $b e$-dew, $b e$-smear.
(2) It forms a part of some nouns, adverbs, and prepositions : be-half, be-quest, be-low, be-neath, besides, $b$-ut.

For-(througii, thorough): for-swear, for-get, for-bear.

Fore- (before) : fore-cast, fore-tell.

MAR. [CHAP.
d-red, foot-
red-hot, new-
gh-hewe. (do-on).
ard:
transitive
erbs, and neath, be-for-get,
xi.] LATTN AND FRENCH SUFFIXES.

Forth-: forth-coming, for-ward.
Gaitr- (against) : gain-say (cp. contra-dict).
In- : in-come, in-land, in-lay, in-to.
Mis- (amiss) : mis-deed, mis-lead, mis-take.
, Of- ( $=$ off, from) : of-fal, off-spring.
On-: on-set, on-ward.
Out-: out-cast, out-let, out-side, out-landish.
Over- (above, beyond, too): over-eating, overflow, over-hear, over-coat.

To- (to, for) : to-day, to-night, to-gether, to-ward, un-to-ward.

Un- (not) : un-true, un-truth, un-wise.
Un- (back) : un-do, un-bolt, un-tie.
Under-: under-go, under-mine, under-hand, underling, under-neath.

Upm: $u p$-hold, $u p$-shot, $u p$-right, $u p$-ward, $u p$-on. With- (against, back) : with-draw, with-hold.

## § 99. Latin and French Suffixes.

## I.-NOUNS.

## 1. Agent:-

-ain, -an: librari-an, vill-air, artis-an. -ard: drunk-ard, dull-ard, wiz-ard. -ee : trust-ee, devot-ee. -eer, -ier: engin-eer, brigad-ier. -our, -er
-or emper-or, govern-our, preach-er, -tor -sor
robb-er, act-or, doct-or.
-trix (fem.) : execu-trix, testa-trix.
-ess (fem.) : lion-ess, song-stress.
-ive: capt-ive, fugit-ive.
-iff: cait-iff, plaint-iff.
-ant, -ent: merch-ant, gi-ant, stud-ent.
-ist: evangel-ist, novel-ist.
-ite, -it: Israel-ite, Jesu-it.
2. Abstract Nouns (see p. 8i):-
-age: cour-age, hom-age, marri-age
-ance, -ence: endur-ance, obeis-ance, obedience, purvey-ance, ridd-ance.
-ancy, -ency: brilli-ancy, excell-ency.
-ess, -ice, -ise: larg-ess, rich-es, prow-ess, merchand-ise, just-ice.
-son, som: beni-son, poi-son, ran-sorn.
-tion: benedic-tion, po-tion, redemp-tion.
-sion: conver-sion, occa-sion, proces-sion.
-lence: pesti-lence, vio-lence.
-ment: command-ment, enchant-ment, nour-ish-ment.
-mony: matri-mony, testi-mony.
-our: col-our, fav-our, hon-our.
-eur: grand-eur, liqu-eur.
-ry, -ery: chival-ry, jewel-ry, poet-ry, surgery, witch-ery.
-tude: longi-tude, multi-tude.
-ty: boun-ty, cruel-ty, frail-ty.
-ure: creat-ure, vest-ure, forfeit-ure.
$-\mathrm{y}:$ felon- $y$, victor- $y$, miser- $y$.
d-ent.
$n c e$, obedi-
$x y$.
prow-ess,

Som.
potion.
es-sion.
ent, nour-
$-r y$, surg-

## xı.] LATTN AND FRENCH SUFFIXES. <br> 87

## 3. Diminutives:-

-aster: poet-aster.
-el, le: parc-el, dams-el, cast-ie.
-icle, cule: art-icle, part-icle, animal-cule.
-ule: glob-ule.
-et, -let: hatch-et, lanc-et, pock-et, brace-let, stream-let.
-ette: etiqu-ette, coqu-ette.

## II.-ADJECTIVES.

-al: loy-al, roy-al, equ-al.
-an, -ain: cert-ain, hum-an.
-ane: hum-ane.
-ant, -ent: en-ant, ramp-ant, pati-ent.
-ary: contr-ary, necess-ary, honor-ary.
-ate: consider-ate, desol-ate, priv-ate.
-ble, -able: sta-ble, fee-ble, mov-able, favourable, laugh-able, eat-able (edi-ble).
-ese: Chin-ese, Malt-ese.
-esque: burl-esque, pictur-esque.
-ile: serv-ile, frag-ile.
-il, -le: civ-il, fra-il, gent-le.
-ine: div-ine, infant-ine.
-ian: Austral-ian, Christ-ian.
-ive: act-ive, coerc-ive, sport-ive, talk-at-ive.
-ose: verb-ose, joc-ose.
-ous: danger-ous, glori-ous, lepr-ous.
-ble: dou-ble, tre-ble.
-ple: tri-ple, sim-ple.
III.-VERBS.
-ate: alien-ate, assassin-ate, accentu-ate. -ish: flour-ish, nour-ish, pun-ish. -fy: magni-fy, signi-fy, simpli-fy.

## \& 100. Greek Suffixes.

## I.-NOUNS.

-ic: log-ic, mus-ic.
-ism: fatal-ism, barbar-ism, magnet-ism.
-sy:* drop-sy, pal-sy.
-siş: paraly-sis.
-y: monarch-y.
-isk (diminutive) : aster-isk, obel-isk.
II.-VERBS.
-ise, -ize: civil-ise, fertil-ise, anathemat-ise.
§ ror. Latin and French Prefixes.
A-, n-, abs-(away, from): ab-normal, $a b$-dicate, $a b s$-traci, $a b s$-tain, $a$-vert, $a$-d-vance, $\&<$.

Ad- (to) :
By assimilation ad becomes ac-, af-, ag-, al-; amn-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-.
$a d$-join, $a d$-vert, $a c$-cept.
Ante- (before) : ante-chamber, ante-date.
Bene- (well): bene-fit.
Bi- (two), bis- (twice) : bi-ennial, bi-ped, bis-cuit.
Circum-, circu- (around): circum-stance; circu-it.

[^1]ntu-ate.
et-ism.
themat-ise.
xes.
$a b$-dicate,
an-, an-, ap-,
, bis-cuit. e, circu-it.

Com-, con-, co- (with):
By assimilation, col-, com-, cor-.
com-mand, con-tend, co-eternal, col-lect, cor-rect.
Contra-, Counter- (against): contra-dict, counteract, counter-feit.

De- (down): de-part, de-scend, de-form.
Dis-, di- (asunder, not): dis-cord, dis-honour, displease, dis-like, dif-fer.

Demi- (half): demi-god.
Ex-, e- (out of, from) : ex-alt, e-lect, ex-mayor.
Extra- (beyond): extra-ordinary, extra-work.
In-, en-, em-(in, into, on), with verbs: in-vert, impose, il-lumine, en-rich, en-dear, em-balm, em-bolden.

In- (not) : in-cautious, il-legal, im-piety, ir-regular.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Inter-,intro- } \\ \text { Enter. }\end{array}\right\}$ (within) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { inter-course, intro-duce. } \\ \text { enter-tain, enter-prise. }\end{array}\right.$
Male-, mal-(ill, badly) : male-factor, mal-treat.
Mis-(from Lat. minus, less): mis-chief, mis-fortune.
Non-(not): non-sense, non-existent.
Ob- (in front of, against): ob-ject, oc-cupy, of-fer, op-pose.
Par-, per- (through): per-force, per-spire, perjure, par-don, pel-lucid; pol-lute.

Post- (after) : post-date, post-script.
Pre- (before) : pre-dict, pre-face.
Pur- (forth) : pur-chase, pur-vey.
Pro- (forward, forth, for) : pro-ject, pro-pose, pronoun.

Re- (back, again) : re-claim, re-join, re-act, re-new.

Retro- (backward) : retro-spect, retro-grade.
Se-(apart, away) : se-clude, se-parate, sed-ition.
Semi- (half): semi-circle.
Sub- (under): sub-ject, suc-cour, s:cf-fer, sur-gest, sub-committee, sus-tain.

Super-, sur- (above, over, beyond) : super-structure, sur-face, sur-pass.

Subter- (beneath) : subter-fuge.
Trans- (across) : trans-figure, trans-form.
Tra-, tres- (across) : tra-verse, tres-pass.
Ultra- (beyond) : ultra-liberal, ultra-marine.
Vice-; vis- (instead of): vice-regent, vis-count, vice-roi.

## § 102. Greek Prefixes.

Amphi- (about, on both sides): amphi-theatre, amphi-bious.

An-, a-(not, without; like English un-): an-archy, a-pathy.

Ana- (up to, again, back) : ana-tomy, ana-logy.
Anti-, ant- (opposite to, against) : anti-christ, ant-arctic.

Apo- (away from, from) : apo-logy, apo-strophe.
Arch-, archi- (chief, head) ; arch-heretic, archbishop, archi-tect.

Auto- (self) : auto-graph, auto-biography.
Cata,- cat- (down) : cata-ract; cat-hedral,
Dia- (through) : dia-meter, dia-logue.
Di- (in two): di-syllable, di-phthong.

AR. [chap. -grade.
sed-ition.
er, sus-gest,
uper-struct-
rm.
ass.
marine. vis-count,
phi-theatre,
: an-archy
ana-logy. anti-christ,
-strophe.
retic, arch-

Dys- (ill): dys-peptic, dys-entery.
Ec-, ex- (out, from) : ex-odus, ec-centric.
En- (in) : en-thusiasm, em-phasis, el-lipsis.
Eu- (well): eu-phony, $e v$-angelist.
Epi- (upon, or) : epi-tome, ep-och.
Hemi- (half) : hemi-sphere.
Hyper- (above, over, beyond): hyper-critical, hyper-bolical.

Hypo- (undei): hypo-crite, hypo-thesis.
Meta- (after, across): meta-morphosis, met-aphor, met-onymy.
Mono- (single, alone) : mono-graph, mon-archy.
Pan- (all): pan-theist.
Para- (beside): para-phrase, para-ble, par-ody.
Peri- (around) : peri-meter, peri-phrases.
Pro- (befoze): pro-gramme, pro-logue.
Syn- (with): syn-thesis, syn-tax, sym-pathy, syllable.

## CHAPTERXII.

## SYNTAX.

8 103. Syntax teaches us how words are put together in a sentence. It treats of the right use of the parts of speech and their inflexions.
The chief combinations of the Parts of Speech are:-

1. A verb and its subject; as, "Time flies."
2. An adjective and its noun; as, "A good man."
3. A verb and its object; as, "John hurt the dog."
4. An adverb and the verb, adjective or adverb to which it is joined. See examples on p. 13 .

- The first, which shows the relation of the Predicate to its subject, is called Predicative combination. (See § 118, p. 10I.)

The second is called Attributive combination. (See p. ro3, for the different modes of expressing an attribute.)

The third is called Objective combination. (See pp 42, 104.)

The fourth is called Adverbial combination. (See pp. 74, 104, 108.)
e or adverb xamples on
redicate to its See § $118, \mathrm{p}$.
(See p. 103, ․)
(See pp 42,
(See pp. 74,
§ 104. I. Verb and Subject. (See p. 104.)

1. A finite verb is in the same numbe: and person as its subject ; as,

## Ithink

Thow think-est He think-s

We think
You think
They think

The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.
$I$ thinks would be wrong, because $I$ is of the first person and $t_{\text {hinks }}$ of the third.

The subject of a finite verb is said to be in the Nominative case.
2. The verb to be takes a Nominative case after it as well as before it ; as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "He is a king;" } \\
& \text { "The king is a child." }
\end{aligned}
$$

Some verbs are used like the verb to be in this respect; as, "he became a bankrupt;" "he seems an idiot;" "he is called a poot;" "he is made a knight."
3. When two or more subjects in the singular number are joined together by the conjunction and, the verb must be put in the plural number; as, "John and William are good boys."
4. Two or more singular subjects joined by or or nor, take a verb in the singular number; as, "John or William, or James is going with me." "Neither John nor William is going."
(i) Or originally meant cither (see p. 39). It implies any one of two, cr an alternative.
(2) When two nouns are of different numbers or persons the verb must agree with the latter. "Either he or I am right." "Neither John nor his brothers have come."
5. When the subject is a collective and singular noun the verb is sometimes put into the plural: "The jury were dismissed." "The multitude were divided."

When the collective noun refers to a number of things considered separately, then the verb shouid be in the plural number. If the objects denoted by the collective nown be regarded as a whole, the verb should be singular; as,
(1) The jury , ach of them) were dismissed.
(2) The council (as one body) has chosen its president.

## § 105. 2. Adjective and Noun.

1. When the adjective is used after the verb to be it is said to be used predicatively; as, "The wound is mortal." When put close to the noun (before or after it) it is said to he used attributively; as, " He received a mortal wound."

- The adjective is used predicatively after the verbs become, seem, appear, turn, \&c. (See p. 93.)

2. A noun (or pronoun) used as an attribute to another noun, signifying the same thing, is said to be in apposition with it; as, William the Norman conquered England" ( $=$ " the Norman William conquer'd England ").

The word Normar: is in apposition to Willam, and agrees with it in number and case.
2. Sometimes the preposition of comes before the appositional word ; as, the county of Rutland $=$ the county Rutland
or persons the or I aln right."
and singular the plural: ultitude were
of things conplural number. e regarded as a
president.
un.
he verb to be
'The wound in (before or sly; as, " He
verbs become,
attribute to is said to be he Norman Nilliam con-
$z m$, and agrees
re the apposiunty Rutland

A noun ( 0 . pronoun) in the Possessive case sta ds in the relation of an attribute to another noun.

Sometimes the preposition of marks the same relation as the sign of the possessive case. (See p. 20.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "Eye of newt and toe of frog, } \\
& \text { Wool of bat and tongue of dog, } \\
& \text { Adder's fork and blind-uorm's sting, } \\
& \text { Ľzard's leg and howlet's wing." } \\
& \text { Macbeth iv, } .
\end{aligned}
$$

## § 106. 3. Verb and Object.

## I. Direct Object.

r. The direct object of a transitive ver is put in the Objective case; as, "The lightning struck the tree and made it wither." (See p. 25.)
2. The verb teach, ask, fo zive, tell; \&c., take two Objectives, one of a person and the other of a thing. "He taught his pupils history." "They asked him his name."

The verbs to make, name, call, estcem, \&c., take two Objectives of the same person or thing; as, "They made him king." "They called John a traitor:"
3. Intransitive verbs often take an objective case, akin in form or meaning to the verb itself: "He dreamed a dream." "They went their way."

The Objective case is sometimes used after intransitive verbs to express ( 1 ) time-how long? (2) spacehow much? "The battle lasted the whole day." "He slept three hours." " "I walked two miles a day."

The Objective case follows some few impersonal
verbs, as it did in Old English; as, it repents me; me lists; it ails me; it irks me; it recks me; it concerns us; it grieves me.

## 2. Indirect Object.

The Indirect Object comes aiter many transitive and intransitive verbs. It may be known by asking the question to or for whom or what? (See p. 25.) "He built me a house." "Give me my book."

The indirect object is used with the impersonal verbs, become, behove, please, likes, beseem, \&c.; cp. methinks = it seems to me; methought = it seemed to me. "Good actions become us." "It behoved Christ to suffer." "If it please you;" or, "if you please."

The Indirect object follows the verb worth; as, "woe worth the day." In imitation of this we have, "woe is me;" "well is him."

The words like (and unlike), nigh, near, next, are followed by the Indirect object. "He is like a giant." He was near us."

Many adjectives (as well as verbs) are followed by the preposition to, and the governed nour may be treated as the indirect object ; as, dear to, cruel to, fair to, similar to, obedient to, squal to.

The adjectives worth and worthy (also unworthy) are sometimes followed by the Indirect Object; as, "it is not worth one's while."
In O. E. these adjectives, like many others, governed the genitive case, cp. the adjectives, slow of, swift of, hard of weary of, worthy of, guitty of, fond of, proud of, ashamed of; and the verbs, think of, smell of, taste of, laugh at (originally laugh of).

The genitive was once used with the adjectives tong, ziong, broad, \&c. ; as, " the box was six vards long, and six feet broad, and ten inches high;" "the bcy is two years oid."

## § ro7. 4. Adverb and Verb, Adjective, or Adverb.

Adverbs, as we have already seen (p. 74), are joined to verbs, adjectives, or alderbs, to express certain relations of time, place, manner, cause, and effect.

The adverb is not always a simple word. It is often (i) a phrase, (2) clause or sentence; as,

1. "He went on shore."
"He came down step by step."
2. "The day having dawned we set out."
"When the day dawned we set out."
(See \& 130, p. 108.)

## MISCELLANEOUS RULES.

## I. Pronouns.

§ ro8. The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person; as, "The boy who was late was punished;" "He that is contented is happy;" "O thou that leadest Israel."
The relative does not always agree ir case with its relative. "He whom we worship, by whose gift we live, is the Lord."
As the relative introduces a new clause, its case must depend upon its relation to the verb in its own clause. In the example quoted above, whiom is objective, because governed by the transitive verb woorship. "Tell me whom I am" is wrong; it ought to be, "Tell me who I am." "Do you know who you speak to," ought to be, "Do you know whom," \&c.
§ 109: The Indefinite Pronouns, each, every, either, neither, are singular, and must be followed by a verb and pronoun in the singular. "Each person knows his own property." "Every bird tries to protect its young." "Either of the two is to be taken."

## 2. Verbs.

§ iro. The Indicative Mood states a positive fact, and is used in simple assertions and questions. (See p. 43.)
§ Irm. The Subjunctive Mood is used to express a doubt, supposition, opinion. The inflected subjunctive has nearly gone out of use. It is still found after such conjunctions as if, unless, though, lest, till; as, "If fortune serve me, I'll requite this kindness." "For murder, though it have no tongue, will speak." "Let me stand here till thou remember it." (See p.43.)

## - § ir2. Infinitive Mood.

The Infinitive Mood is used after the verbs shall, will, may, can, must, dare, let, do, without the sign to before it; as, "he can read," " he will talk."
I. The infinitive without to occurs after the transitive verbs bid, make, see, hear, feel.
2. It is used after go; cp. "go seek," which is sometimes changed to "go and seek."

The gerundial infinitive is the infinitive with the preposition to ( $=$ for) before it, used after nouns and adjectives; as, " a house to let," "ready to go," "hard to tell." Here the infinitives are equal to verbal nouns with the preposition for; as, to let $=$ for letting, \&c.

The gerundial infinitive is also used to mark a purpose; as, "What went ye out to see?"

The gerundial infinitive is so called because it often corresponds to a gerund in Latin.

The simple infinitive must be either in the nominative or objective case; as," "位err is numan" (nom.) ; "he began to err" (obj.).

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a positive questions.

1 to express lected substill found gh, lest, till; kindness." ill speak." (See p. 43.)
the verbs rithout the will talk." ansitive verbs
is sometimes e with the nouns and go," " hard erbal nouns letting, \&c. to mark a
often corre-
the nomiis numañ"
xiI.]

## § 113. Participles.

Participles in -ing and -ed are used as adjectives, and always refer to some noun in the sentence to which they belong. They may be used attributively or predicatively (see p. 45) ; as, "a lowing mother;" " a drunken man;" " a bruised reed."

Participles (and Adjectives) with tike before them are used as nouns; as, "the living;" "the dead;" "the first begotten;" "the Lord's anointed."

The Participle is sometimes used absolutely with the Nominative case before it; as, "The dawn appearing, we rose;" "This done, Mazeppa spread his cloak."

The participle is said to be used absolutely because it stands in no grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.

The nominative before the participle is called the Nominative absolute, because it agrees with no finite verb.

## § ri4. Verbal Nouns.

Verbal Nouns in -ing. These must not be confounded with present participles in -ing.

Verbal nouns are used either as nominatives or objectives.
(x) The mending of the table will not take long.
(2) The mending must be done at once.
(3) The table wants mending.
(4) The cost of meniiing the table will not be great.
100. PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [СHAP.

The verbal noun mending in (4) seems to govern the noun table: but in older English the preposition of came between the verbal noun and the following noun, and the phrase would have stood thus: "The cost of the mending of the table." See example (x), p. 99.

In such phrases as, "The house is building," \&c. ( $=$ " the house is a-building"), the form in -ing is a verbal noun.

## 3. Prepositions.

§ II5. Prepositions are said to govern the objective case. (See p. 25.)

Notwithstavding, considering, respecting, \&c., were once participles used absolutely. (See p. 99.) They have now got the force of prepositions.

## 4. Conjunctions.

§ ir6. Conjunctions simply join sentences. They must be carefully distinguished from (i) Adverbs, (2) Prepesitions.

Some words, as save, except, but, ere, are used both as Conjunctions and Prepositions.

But is used as three parts of speech. (See p. 14.):
(I) "I cannot but believe."

Here not but must be taken together as a compound Adverb $=o n l y$.
(2) In "There is no one but knows," but stands for the older English, that ne = that not. It must be parsed as a Conjunction.

Cp . "No roof arose, tat was open to the homeless stranger" $=$ " No roof arose that was not," \&c.

MAR. [CHAP.
vern the noun came between phrase would of the table."
"\&c. (=, "the 1 noun.
the object-
, were once lave now got
ces. They ) Adverbs, used both
xIII.] ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

## CHAPTER XIII.

## ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

\& 817 . A complete thought put into words is called a Sentence.

Sentence (Lat. sententia) means judgment, sense. A complete sentence makes complete sense. Every sentence expresses either an assertion or a question, command, wish, \&c.

To analyse a sentence is to break it up into its separate parts.

## § I18. Subject and Predicate.

We can break up every sentence into two parts:-
(1) The name of that of which we speak.
(2) What is said about the thing spoken of.

The name of that which is spoken of is called the Subject.
What is said about the subject is called the Predicate.

| Subject. | Predicate. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Corn | grows. |
| Rain | falls. |
| Snow | is white. |

Every sentence must contain these two parts. Sometimes the subject is omitted; as, $G o=g o$ [thou].

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Subject. } \\
& \text { thou }
\end{aligned}
$$

## § ェig. The Subject.

As the Subject names something that is spoken of, it must be :-

1. A Noun. (See p. 17 for the various kinds of nouns.)
2. Some word or words that may take the place and do the duty of a noun, as a Pronoun or a Sentence.
Examples:-

| Subject. | Predicate. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Man | is mortal. |
| He | is erring. |
| He | is in error. |
| Erring | is human. |
| To err | is human. |
| That he erred | is certain. |

An adjective with the definite article is equivalent to a noun; as, "the dead" = "dead man;" cp. "the wise are respected."
§ 120. The Enlarged subject. The simple subject is a word in the Nominative case. We may call this the grammatical subject.

Every noun, however, may have an adjective joined to it to qualify it. The subject noun with its adjective is called the enlarged subject; as,
(1) Sharp noords give offence.
(2) A virtuous man will be rewarded. Simple Subject. Enlargement. Predicate.

> (1) Words
(2) $M a n$
a, virtuous give offence. will be rewarded
is spoken
rious kinds
e the place Pronoun
tivalent to a he zuise are
he simple We may
adjective in with its
as,
led.
dicate. fence. rewarded

Enlarged Subject.
(1) Sharp words
(2) A virtuous man

Predicate. give offence. will be rewarded.
§ 121. Instead of adjectives we may use words, phrases, or sentences, to qualify or enlarge the subject These are called Attributes, and may be:( I ) A noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "John's hat is lost;" "his coat is torn."
(2) An adjective phrase; as, " A man of wisdom is respected;" "A walk in the frelds is pleasant;" "A desire to learn is to be encouraged."
(3) An adjective sentence; as, "John, who is a carpenter, made this box."
(4) A shortened adjective clause, called a noun in apposition; as, "John, the carpenter, made this box."
Participles, whether they come before or after the noun, are adjectives; as, "rolling stones gather no moss," or " stones, rolling continually, gather no moss."

## § 122. The Predicate.

The Predicate is that part of the sentence that makes a statement about the subject. It must therefore contain the chief verb of the sentence. When the predicate is a single word it is a verb; as, "Dogs bark."

The verb "to be," when it does not mean to live, or exist, cannot form a predicate. We must therefore join some word to it to make the predicate ; as, "the earth is round."
Here we predicate of the earth, roundness, not existence; cp. "The lion is a noble animal."
Other verbs, like become, seem, \&c., require another word after them to form the predicate. (See pp. 93, 94.)
§ 123. When the Predicate consists of more than a finite verb it may be called the Enlarged predicate; as, "The village master taught his little school."
When the simple predicate is a transitive verb an object must of course be added. (See $\S 59$, p. 42.)

Subject. The village master

Predicate. taught

Object. his little school.
(1) The object must be a noun, or some word doing duty for a noun. It may have attributes joined to it. See Subject, p. 102.

Some verbs have two objects, ( r ) direct, (2) indirect; as, Subject. $\mid$ Predicite. They gave Овјест. him (indirect) a book (direct).
Others have two direct objects :

| Subject. | Predicate. <br> They | Object. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| made | him a king. |  |

Some writers on grammar call the object the Completion of the Predicate, or the Complement of the Predicate.
§ 124. The verb may be qualified by an Adverb, or some word or words (phrase or sentence) doing duty for an adverb. This addition to the predicate is called the Extension of the Predicate or Adverbial qualification of the Predicate; as,

Subject.
He
He He

Predicate. acted acted acted

Extension.
wisely.
in a wise manner. as a reise man should act.

AR. [снар.
more than l predicate; hool."
ve verb an 59, p. 42.)
jECT. tle school.
ing duty for ee Subject,
ect ; as,
ook (direct).
mpletion of

Adverb,
ce) doing
predicate or Ad-

## § 126. The Compound Sentence.

Wheñ a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is called a Simple sentence. Two
simple sentences may be united together by a coordinate conjunction (see p. 78) to form a compound sentence; as, "Birds fly and fish swim."

Each member of the compound sentence makes complete sense by itself, and neither depends upon the other for its meaning. The second member of a compound sentence is said to be co-ordinate with the first.
(1) Compound sentences may be contracted; as, " John returned home and James returned home yesterday" = " John and James returned home yesterday."
(2) And is often used to join two or more co-ordinate terms belonging to the same word in the sentence; as, that new and expensive toy is spoilt.

Subject.
That new and expensive toy
Predicate.
is spoilt.

## § 127. The Complex Sentence.

We have seen that a sentence may do duty for ( r ) a Noun, (2) an Adjective, (3) an Adverb. As such sentences depend upon another sentence called the Principal one, for their full meaning, they are hence called Subordinate sentences. Subordinate sentences are of three kinds, Substantival, Adjectival, and Adverbial. The principal sentence, with the subordinate part or parts, is called a Complex Sentence.

In the complex sentence, "They lived unknown, till persecution dragged them into fame," the two sentences are :-
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by a coompound
e makes nds upon nber of a with the
" John re" = " John nate terms new and
(1) "They lived unk nown."
(2) "Persecution dragg'd them into fame."

Each sentence as it stands makes complete sense ; but the full meaning of sentence two is not felt before it is joined and relaled to sentence one by the connecting word or conjunction till.

## I. Noun-Sentences.

§ 128. A Substantival or noun-sentence does the duty of a noin, and may be used as the subject or object of the verb in the principal sentence. It is sometimes introduced by the word that; as, (subject) "That Julius Casar invaded Britain is a well-known fact;" (object) "he tried to prove that the earth is not round."

Indirect questions are often objects; as, "Tell me who said so," "Ask him why he did so," "Can he explain hozv it is done."

## 2. Adjective-Sentences.

§ 129. The Adjectival sentence does the duty of an adjective and qualifies some noun in the principal sentence.
It is very often joined to the principal sentence ly means of a relative pronoun or relative adverb.
(1) At daybreak on a hill they stood that overlooked the moor.
(2) And shall the audacious traitor brave

The presence where our banners zwave?
In ( I ) the adjective sentence qualifies the noun hill in the principal sentence.
In (2) the adjective sentence qualifies the noun presence in the principal sentence. Notice that where $=$ in which.

## 3. Adverb-Sentences.

§ 130 . The Adverbial sentence does the duty of an adverb, and modifies some verb, adjective, or adverb, in the principal sentence.

The classification of adverbial sentences is the same as that of adverbs. (See p. 74.) Adverbial sentences are generally joined to the principal sentence by a subordinate conjunction. (See p. 78.)

Examples:-
"On Linden, when the sun was love, All bloodless lay the untrodden snow."
"We went where the lions were kept." "He died as he had lived." "That man is as good as he is great." "He is taller than his brother." "The higher he climbs the more heavily he will fall." "The weather was so cold that I was nearly frosen."

A subordinate member of a complex sentence may stand in the place of principal to some other subordinate sentence, that modifies one of its elements." [See (2), p. 110.]
R. [CHAP.
the duty jective, or es is the rbial sensentence

Ie died as is great:" higher he e weather
ay stand in atence, that
xili.] ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.
§ 131. Examples.
(I) " "r'ıere, at the foot of yonder nodding beech, | His listless length at noontide would he stretch, That wreathes its old fantastic root so high, And pore upon the brook that babbles by."

| Sentence. | Kind of Sentence. | Subject. | Predicate. | Object. | AdverbialAdjunct. (Extension of the Predicate.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (I) There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech, his listless length at noontide would he stretch. | Principle Sentence. | he | would stretch | his listless length | there, at the foot of yonder beech (place) at noontide (time) |
| (2) That wreathes its old fantastic root so high. | Subordinate, Adjective to beech in sentence ( I ). | that | wreathes | its old fantastic root | so high (manner) |
| (3) And [he would] pore upon the brook. | Principal Sentence, Co-ordinate with (I). | he | would pore upon | the brook | . . . |
| (4) That babbles by. | Subordinative, Adjective to brook in (4). | that | babbles | . . . | by (place). |

Ito PRIMER OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [CHAP.
(2) "If you have seen a cat (which, though it looks sc meek, is of the tiger kind) fall on a
poor little mouse, you may imagine how the tiger seizes on a deer."

$|$| Adverbial |
| :---: |
| Adjunct. |
| (Extension of |
| thePredicate) |


| a cat fall on a <br> poor little <br> mouse |
| :---: |
| $\ldots .$. |
| object. <br> how the <br> tiger, \&c. |

$$
{ }^{\bullet} \text { гээр є }
$$

| Sentence. | Kind of Sentence. | Subject. | Predicate, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (I) If you have seen a cat fall on a poor little mouse, | Subordinate, Adverbial to imagine in (4). | you | have seen |
| (2) which is of the tiger kind, | Subordinate, Adjective to cat in (I). | which | is of the tiger kind |
| (3) though it looks so meek, | Subordinate, Adverbial to Predicate in (2). | it | looks so meek |
| (4) you may imagine | Principal Sentence. | you | may imagine |
| (5) how the tiger seizes on a deer. | Subordinate, Noun (object) to imagine in (4). | the tiger | seizes on |


 proceeded wholly from affection and good-will, he only told him that he had paid him too high a compliment."
Sentence.
(I) As soon as

Sir Roger was acquainted with it, (2) that his ser-
vant's indiscretion proceeded wholly
from affection
and good-will,
(3) h 'finding,
(4) that he had paid him
§ 132. MODEL OF GRAMMATICAL PARSING.
I. Noun:-1. Kind (Common, Proper); 2. Number; 3. Gender; 4. Case; 5. Syntax.
II. Pronoun:-1. Kind (Personal, Demonstrative, \&c.); 2. Person; 3. Number; 4. Gender; 5. Case; 6. Syntax.
III. Adjective:-r. Kind; 2. Degree of Comparison; 3. Function (attribute of, or predicate of).
IV. Verb:-1. Kind (Transitive, Intransitive); 2. Conjugation (Strong, Weak); 3. Voice; 4. Mood; 5. Tense; 6. Person; 7. Number; 8. Syntax (agreeing with); 9. Parts (Present, Past, Passive Participle).
V. Adverb:-1. Kind; 2. Degree of Comparison; 3. Function (qualifying Verb, Adjective, or Adverb).
VI. Preposition:-1. Kind; 2. Function (joining a Noun to a Noun, \&c.).
VII. Conjuncion:-1. Kind; 2. Function(joining two sentences co-ordinately or subordinately).

> EXAMPLE.

My father lived at Blenheim then, Yon little stream hard by; They burnt his dwelling to the ground, And he was forced to fly.
.... Pronoun, personal, possessive, rst person, singular number, common gender, attribute of father.
father .... Noun, common, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject of fived.

MAR. Гchap.
PARSING.
;) ; 2. Num-

DemonstraGender; 5
ree of Comredicate of). atransitive); ; 4. Mood; ntax (agreessive Parti-

Comparison; or Adverb). ution (join-
nction (joindinately).
ound,
rst person, ler, attribute
r , masculine ct of lived.
xiri.] PARSING.

113
at
Blenheim
then
Yon
little
stream

They
burnt
his
$t o$
the
ground
dzvelling .... Noun, common, singular number, neuter
Noun, common, singular number, neuter
gender, objective case, governed by the transitive verb burnt.
.... Verb, intransitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3 rd person, singular number, agreeing with its subject father. Parts: live, lived, lived.
.... Preposition, joining lived and Blenheim. Noun, proper, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after at.
.$\therefore$. Adverb of time, qualifying the verb lived.
Pronoun, demonstrative, used as the attribute of stream.
Adjective of quality, positive degree, attribute of streant.

Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, governed by the compound preposition hard $b y_{0}$
.... Pronoun, demonstrative, 3 rd person, plural number, common gender, nominative case, subject of burnt.
Verb, transitive, weak conjugation, active voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3 rd person, plural number, agreeing with its subject they. Parts: burn, burnt, burnt.
.... Pronoun, demonstrative, possessive, 3rd person, singular number, masculine gender, attribute of dwelling.

Preposition, joining burnt and ground.
Adjective, demonstrative, attribute of ground.
Noun, common, singular number, neuter gender, oijective case, after the preposition to.

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 PRIMER OF. ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [CHAP.And ..... Conjunction, co-ordinate, joining the two sentences, "They burnt," \&c., to "He was forced to fly."
he .... Pronoun, demonstrative, 3rd person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, agreeing with the verb was forced.
wuas forced* . . . . Verb, transitive, weak, passive voice, indicative mood, past tense, 3 rd person, singular, agreeing with its subject he. Parts: force, forced, forced.
to fly .... Verb, intransitive, weak, infinitive mood, indirect object, after was forced.

## § 133. Examples of Analysis of Sentences not in a Tabular Form.

(See § 13I, p. 109.)

1. My worthy friend, Sir Roger, when we are talking of the malice of parties, very frequently tells us an accident that happened when he was a schoolboy.
A.

My worthy friend, Sir Roger, very frequently tells us an accident

[^2]
ining the two c., to " He was
erson, singular r, nominative was forced. e voice, indicaerson, singular, Parts: force,
finitive mood, reed.

Sentences
we are talkntly tells us is a school-
ly tells us an
, as folluws :
ive mood, past s subject he. the verb force,
XIII.]

PARSING.

## B.

(when) we are talking of the malice of parties C.
that happened
D.
(when) he was a school-boy.
A. Principal sentence.
B. Subordinate, Adverbial (time) to tells in A.
C. Subordinate, Adjectival to accident in A.
D. Subordinate, Adverbial (time) to happened in C.

## Friend

My worthy, Sir Roger,
tells
us
an accident
very frequently

When
we
are talking of
malice
the, of parties

That
happened

When
he
was a school-itoy

## A.

Subject.
Attributes of Subject. Predicate.
\} Object.
Extension of Predicate (time).
B.

Connective, joining A and B.
Subject.
Predicate.
Object.
Attributes of Object.
C.

Subject.
Predicate.
D.

Connective, joining C and D.
Subject.
Preditáte.
2. I had worn out all the waistcoats I had, and my business was now to try if I could not make jackets out of the great watch-coats which I possessed, and such other materials as I had.
A.

I had worn out all the waistcoats
B.
[that] I had
c.
(and) my business was now to try
D.
(if) I could not make jackets out of the great watch-coats and such other materials

> E.
(which) I possessed
F. as I had.
A. Principal ; co-ord. with C.
B. Subord. Adject. to waistcoats in A.
C. Principal ; co-ord. with A.
D. Subord. Noun (obj.) to try in C.
E. Subord. Adject. to waistcoats in D.
F. Subord. Adject. to materials in D.

I
had worn out
waistcoats
all the
A.

Subject.
Predicate.
Object.
Attributes of Obiect.


## CONTRACTIONS.

O. E. = Old English.

Fr. $\quad=$ French.
N.-Fr. $=$ Norman-French.




[^0]:    * This took place in the sixteenth century.

[^1]:    * Norman French form of -ife.

[^2]:    * The verbs was and forced may be parsed separately, as folluws : was ... Verb, intransitive, strong, auxiliary. indicative mood, past tense, $3^{\text {rd }}$ person, singular, agreeing with its subject he.
    forced... Verb, transitive, weak, passive participle of the verb force, forming with tuft p passive past sense.

